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The Nation

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 7, 1911.

The Week

President Taft loses no occasion to show that he is deeply in earnest about the arbitration treaties. He went to the meeting of the American Bar Association last week in order to argue about them before the assembled lawyers. Addressing himself to the main issue raised by the Senate Committee—namely, that the Senate ought not to be asked to "delegate" or "abdicate" its treaty-making power—he contended with much force that the Constitution certainly places the Senate no higher than the President in this regard, and that either may safely leave it, in certain cases, to an impartial and able commission to decide whether a given dispute is of such a nature that it is "justiciable," and so capable of being arbitrated. And Mr. Taft was really impressive in maintaining that we ought to be ready to hazard something for the sake of the world's peace, but in pressing home the truth that those who object to arbitration because under it the decision might go against their own country take up a position as truly untenable as would be that of a private litigant who should refuse to go into court unless certain that he should win. It is good to be assured that this great cause lies so near the President's heart, and that he will stand up for it in his Western speeches. All the more is it to be regretted, therefore, that on other matters his attitude is such as to arouse opposition and stir up strife within his own party. It would be a thousand pities if the spirit of faction which his coming tour seems certain to embitter should have the effect of emasculating or destroying the arbitration treaties.

Information now in the hands of Senator La Follette's campaign manager indicates that unless a progressive Republican be nominated for President next year, "this country will be compelled to face the disaster which usually accompanies a Democratic national Administration." Whereby the truth is once more exemplified that long after a man has given up believing in God and going to church he will continue to put on a frock coat and carry a cane on Sunday. The Insurgents have found it easy enough to break with nearly every article in the Republican creed, but they cannot forget the moth-eaten party shibboleths, of which the Democratic party's incapacity to cause the rain to fall and the crops to grow is the most ancient. The reproach comes most unkindest from the political agent of the statesman to whose present prosperous fortunes the Democrats in Congress have so generously contributed. We wonder if the certainty of national disaster attendant upon the election of a Democratic President is strong enough to make Mr. La Follette wish that last year's Congressional elections had turned out differently from what they did.

The stationing of a regiment of infantry on the Panama zone at this stage of the canal's development might seem quite inexplicable were it not that Congress will assemble in December to listen to more arguments from Gen. Wood on the necessity for an enlarged army. Up to this time, marines have successfully guarded the canal excavations in coöperation with the canal police. But now fear of an invasion has evidently become tense, and the Tenth Infantry is to leave for the canal at once to reinforce the battalion of marines to which Col. Goethals has let his guard dwindle. Next there are to go Coast Artillery and even cavalry, until a full brigade is stationed at Panama, in complete idleness save for the customary drills. In the intervals, we presume, the men will sit on the banks of the canal and watch the boats go through. It will always remain a mystery why a man who seems so genuinely devoted to peace as Mr. Taft should lend himself to this absurd canal fortifying. We recall his speech about the increase of the navy, to the effect that "we had better go on building two battleships a year until the canal is done, and then take stock of our situation." This indicates the lack of a clear-cut policy in this matter, as in the Philippines.

President Taft has commuted the sentences of two more army officers. One of them was convicted by his fellow-officers of embezzling moneys from the post exchange. Into this case Mr. Taft went with his usual painstaking care, reading all the evidence taken, as though he were still a judge on the bench. It is, therefore, quite unfair to charge him, as some of the Washington correspondents do, with permitting politics to rule. But it is permissible to point out in this as in several other cases in which he has exercised leniency that he does not realize how his acts discourage the service which tries hard to rid itself of its black sheep. An officer is usually not brought before a court for a serious offence until the service is certain that the time has come for drastic measures. In this case of Lieut. Rutherfurd, Mr. Taft apparently concedes that he was guilty, for he has reduced him fifty numbers in rank. But this is utterly inadequate; if he stole, nothing less than dismissal was merited; if he was innocent, he should receive no punishment. As in the case of Col. Cooke, whose sentence Mr. Taft commuted to the pain of the entire army, the President has failed to appreciate the spirit of the service, and has done it positive harm out of what is undoubtedly merely kindness of heart.

In so far as party politics enters into the contest over the retention of prohibition in the Maine Constitution, it concerns only the leaders of the parties, and by no means all of them. The people in general are too deeply interested in the question at issue to be swayed by any extraneous considerations. The Democrats, in taking the responsibility for submitting the amendment to a vote, were actuated as much by what they conceived to be the public sentiment as by hope of the partisan advantage which their opponents foresee for them in its repeal. It does not seem reasonable that many Republicans of the rank and file can be terrified by the prospect of a Democratic machine built up on license patronage. If their own leaders cannot play at such a game as that, then, indeed, political conditions have altered in the Pine Tree State. Nevertheless, even when stripped of politics, the issue is not simple. Both sides exhibit

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figures which prove and disprove the moral and material advantages of prohibition and license. The repealers argue that the law entails political hypocrisy and corruption; the supporters of the amendment reply that it reduces poverty and insanity. Outsiders will be inclined to think that, if there is any State in the Union that ought to be capable of deciding the question, it is the one that has tried Constitutional prohibition for twenty-seven years, and is in its sixth decade of statutory prohibition. For this reason the result will be watched with general interest.

If William Penn were to return to Philadelphia to-day he would be quite overcome by the ample evidences of brotherly love in the politics of that great city. Senator Penrose gives fresh proof of his well-known public spirit by placing $100,000 in a trust fund to protect any officeholder thrown out of his job because of his adherence to the Senator in his fight against his co-managers of the machine. Apparently, hints have reached the Senator that fear of financial loss might make some of the officeholders, who were swayed like himself by the purest and most unselfish devotion to good government, reluctantly go with the Vares. Hence Mr. Penrose's noble action. From now on officeholders whose activity for Penrose is conspicuous will receive their dismissal with perfect equanimity and live on a slice of that $100,000 until the Senator finds a place for them in the Federal service. But the Vares are not to be outdone. *Noblesse oblige;* and so Contractor Vare shows his high-mindedness by giving up all city contracts as rapidly as he can and by turning over the management of his brother's campaign to some one else.

The first trial of the direct primary for the nomination of Governor of Maryland is regarded by the Baltimore *Sun* as justifying the passage of the law. Had the contest taken place under the old convention system there would have been no contest worthy of the name. With the Baltimore Democratic machine and the State and county organizations all working for Gorman, the result would have been certain from the beginning. As it is, he squeezes into the nomination by virtue mainly of Baltimore's twenty-eight votes, controlled by the Mahon ring. In that city Lee's forces made almost no struggle, concentrating their efforts, with a wisdom revealed by the outcome, in the counties. As the *Sun* puts it, a well-guarded primary law destroys political monopoly, or at least makes its destruction possible, and introduces free competition into the party. This is especially desirable in such a State as Maryland where the Republican party is usually too feeble to be a menace to boss rule. The Maryland law, however, needs amendment. A date two weeks later would accommodate many voters who are absent from Baltimore in August, and still leave a month and a half for the campaign. The election boards, while bi-partisan, are organization men, and this imposes an unfair handicap upon an anti-organization candidate in either party. If the element for Lee pursues the advantage it has gained in more than one county supposed to be in the grip of the organization, the *Sun* will be justified in declaring that a new political era has begun in Maryland.

Adoption of a new form of municipal government by five thousand voters out of twenty-five thousand does not look like majority rule. But that is what has occurred in Omaha. With two thousand voters casting their ballots against it, and seventeen thousand not voting at all, the largest city in Nebraska has decided to try commission government. The striking feature of this election is the degree of indifference which it reveals. Apathy itself in varying amounts is a familiar feature of our experiments with self-government. By it we have proved that we propose to exert no more of the vigilance that is the price of our political happiness than is absolutely necessary. When a contest is one of individuals rather than of principles, for instance, we are apt to allow our inertia to assert itself, and to devote ourselves more completely to business while letting the election run itself. A stranger might be excused for thinking that we were in the habit of calculating the chances, weighing the risk of loss by the election of the most undesirable candidates against the probable loss by neglecting our private affairs, and that, when in doubt, we took the former risk.

Fremont Older, editor of the San Francisco *Bulletin*, and one of the men principally responsible for the bringing to justice of Abe Reuf, is now advocating the pardon of the man whom, in the writer's own phrase, he had "pursued" for eight years. In the *Survey*, Mr. Older gives the reasons for his change of heart. He has ceased to believe that our economic difficulties can be solved by sending men to prison; so long as public necessities are controlled by private corporations, there will be civic corruption; "Ruef was a victim of the system." It is an extraordinary argument. There has always been a great deal of false sentiment and wrong thinking in connection with this unhappy phrase regarding the sinner who is a victim rather than a criminal. Pertinent enough, let us say, in the case of the woman outcast or the juvenile delinquent, the phrase is ridiculous when applied to an unscrupulous corruptionist, whom no other necessity than the depravity of his inner being drove to make a business out of the shame of his city. What system of public management or what system of any kind, economic, social, or religious, can be guaranteed to keep a man straight who is determined to be crooked? Some abatement in our pity for such "victims" of society is necessary if only in justice to the ninety-nine per cent. of us who do not live by theft or vice.

The outlook for the recall of judges in Arizona is indicated in the following dispatch:

> At a mass meeting of the chief Democrats of Graham County, held to decide on the question of accepting Statehood and eliminating the recall of the judiciary feature of the Constitution, it was unanimously decided to vote for striking out the recall provision and to pledge all candidates for every office, and especially for the Legislature, to provide for the immediate replacement of the measure after admission has been consummated.

The thing is not so easily done as all that. Even in Arizona, we presume, it needs a popular vote to approve an amendment after it has been approved by the Legislature. But conceding that Arizona may have back her cherished recall the day after she is admitted into the Union, the fight over the question at Washington and the President's veto have been far from wasted. They have concentrated national attention upon a fundamental change in the spirit of our institutions to which we shall be called upon to give much thought in the fu-

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ture. Perhaps it is for the best that Arizona should now proceed to make her experiment with the especially watchful eye of the country upon her.

One of the most interesting happenings in the South of late has been a strike of white laborers at Key West because of the discharge of two negro workmen. Usually the case is the reverse both North and South; that is, if there is objection it is to the employment of colored labor alongside of white laborers. But at Key West every union carpenter struck until a board of arbitration found that the men were in the right. They were restored to work, and, says a Key West account, "the white and colored laborers are on much better terms." This is certainly refreshing reading when one recalls the bitter and costly strikes in Georgia and elsewhere of white men to prevent negro workmen on railways from rising above the humblest positions, and if it can be taken as a sign that labor is awakening to the fact that it least of all can indulge in race prejudice, it should give genuine reason for rejoicing. The other attitude particularly to be noted here in the North of excluding the colored man from unions is doubly wrong from the union point of view: it makes the negroes ready to act as strike-breakers, and it makes most of their arguments as to the brotherhood of all labor highly nonsensical. But this is one of the issues which Mr. Gompers finds it difficult to wax eloquent over, while he has sympathy unending for white men charged with the worst of crimes—wholesale murder. Upon what constitutes real brotherhood the Socialists can give Mr. Gompers some desirable lessons.

The amateur strategists are busy deciding the outcome of the war between France and Germany that has not come off. There is a pleasant variety of opinion on the subject. It has been made plain that upon the outbreak of war, Germany will immediately throw her armies into France and occupy Paris before the Russians have a chance to mobilize, or England can bring her troops across the Channel. The German fleet will be destroyed by the English fleet, of course, but for that France will be made to pay, and more; and so the outcome will be acceptable to Great Britain and acceptable to Germany and disastrous to France. But it has also been made plain that when war is declared the British fleet will immediately destroy the German fleet, the Russians will mobilize instantly, the German forces will be held back by the impregnable line of French forts, and even if they succeed in forcing their way into French territory, their gains will be more than counterbalanced by the loss of their fleet, their ports, and their foreign commerce. So war means disaster to Germany. Both conclusions follow inevitably from the careful balancing of regiments, guns, and battleships which constitutes the amateur strategist's sole method for gauging the rise and fall of nations.

An agreement between two great Powers that pleases both parties and satisfies the interested bystanders is a rarity. Such a pact is the one just concluded between Germany and Russia with regard to railway development in northern Persia. Russia is pleased at obtaining German recognition of her predominant interests in the northern half of the Empire; and because the Russian sphere of influence is a product of the understanding with Great Britain, that Power is inclined to view the situation with equanimity. Germany obtains from Russia the promise that the Bagdad railway shall be ultimately extended to Teheran, together with the usual "open door" privileges in northern Persia. It is fortunate for the Liberal movement in Persia, the future of which is still beset with difficulties, that its task should be made easier by the removal of any near possibility of foreign complications.

The tenth Zionist congress at Basel set definite limits to the movement brought into being by the late Theodor Hertzl, and thereby gave it a definiteness of purpose it has hitherto lacked. Dr. Hertzl's conception was of an autonomous Jewish state in Palestine, established under the guarantee of the Powers. The methods to be employed were those of diplomacy. Dr. Hertzl entered into negotiations with Sultan Abdul Hamid without any outward signs of success. The overthrow of Abdul Hamid was a serious check to Zionist aspirations. The Young Turks were Ottoman patriots. Their policy of centralization was utterly opposed to the idea of a self-governing Jewish state within the Empire. The latest Zionist congress has recognized the turn of events by abandoning the idea of a Jewish state and the methods of diplomacy, and declaring instead for a policy of gradual colonization. The two factions have been present in the Zionist movement since the beginning, but the death of the founder of the movement and the increasing pressure of the situation in Russia made the position of the "politicals" untenable. The Congress was forced to recognize the fact that while the theories of Zionism were being discussed, emigration was solving the problem of the Jews in Russia in a way unacceptable to the advocates of Palestine as the destined refuge for oppressed Judaism. Such are the considerations that have led Zionists to abandon the greater but distant hope for the immediate, practical benefits of an active policy of colonization in the Holy Land. After years of hesitation and a great deal of stumbling in the dark, the original idea of a Jewish home in the Holy Land has reasserted itself.

Party names have comparatively little significance in a parliamentary system like that of Japan, where Ministerial responsibility is non-existent and continuity of policy is maintained through the preponderant influence of a small group of veteran statesmen. Yet to the extent that it is possible to speak of Conservatives and Liberals in Japan, the Saionji Ministry, which has just replaced that of Marquis Katsura, may be described as Liberal. The outgoing Premier was at the head of the Government during the war with Russia, and his Foreign Minister, Baron Komura, was Foreign Minister at that time. The war once concluded, the difficult problems of finance and economic readjustment proved to be of a kind for which the military talents of Katsura were unsuited. Unpopularity inevitably attaches to the business of paying the price of war. Baron Katsura retired and was succeeded by Marquis Saionji. Then came the unrest in Korea and the rise of discontent and sedition at home, and Katsura, as the "strong man," once more came to the front, bringing Komura with him. The necessary work having been done, the two men make way once more for what is by comparison a progressive and lenient régime.

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MR. TAFT'S NEW EXPERIENCE.

Speaker Clark's rejoinder to the President's Massachusetts speech is a trifle "savage and tartarly," but is significant both in itself and as indicating the changed conditions which Mr. Taft has now to confront. He may have been surprised at some of the Speaker's blunt utterances, but must hereafter be prepared to hear many more of the same kind. The reason is that from now on he will be regarded not merely as the President, but as an active candidate for renomination. His speech-making tour two years ago was frankly a good deal of a failure; but at that time he had been only a few months in office; everybody had personal good-will for him; the deference due his office was shown him; he was nowhere directly attacked. But from now till November of next year all this will be altered. The amenities will give way to the animosities. Mr. Taft's statements will be sharply challenged. His consistency will be questioned. Both Democrats and Insurgent Republicans will open fire upon him, and he will find himself in a political battle where no one is spared.

This will be a new experience for President Taft. He has never before had to go out and take a hand in rough political debating. In 1908 the bludgeon-work was kindly attended to for him by President Roosevelt. Since then Mr. Taft has made a great many perfunctory or occasional addresses, but these have been mostly non-controversial or "official," with no one to answer back. The biting criticism, the hard hitting, will now set in, however, and it is a question whether he is fitted to shine in that kind of political fighting. His greatest strength hitherto he has shown in such deliberately prepared state papers as his veto message on the recall of judges, or the mature and comprehensive speech on the conservation policy which he delivered at St. Paul last year. It is another thing to have to meet all comers without notice; to be compelled to reply as well as to assert. Beginning with his coming tour of the West, the President will enter upon a period of rough-and-tumble political fighting, new to him, and whether he has the readiness, the dash, and the verve for it his best friends may well be in doubt.

How his predecessor would have met such frontal attacks as those of Speaker Clark and Senators La Follette, Cummins, and Bristow, it is easy to imagine. There would have been instant elections to the Ananias Club. Letters would have been drawn from secret places and published. The loud assertion would have been made that the President's opponents were in cahoots with "the interests," and that, if the whole truth were known, it would probably be found that they were in the employ of the Standard Oil Company. Dr. Johnson's method of controversy would have been freely used, and if the pistol had missed fire, the antagonist would have been knocked down with the butt. Mr. Taft, however, is not a man cut out for such scrimmaging. In 1908 the man who nominated him complained that he was putting so little "ginger" into the campaign, and came forward himself to supply the missing article, along with large amounts of mustard and tabasco sauce. It is doubtful if Mr. Taft would care in this way to bang and bethwack his opponents even if he were able; it is more doubtful if he is the man to do it effectively if he were to attempt it. The judicial mind does not go well with the swishing shillelah.

This is one reason why it is wise to accept with reserve the reports that the President is going to take the offensive in his Western tour this month. If one were to believe some of the enthusiastic correspondents, it is Mr. Taft's purpose to sally forth in order to smite the Insurgents hip and thigh. But the fact is evident that, on the main point at issue between them, the President will necessarily go, not with a sword in his hand, but an explanation! On the tariff question, about which everybody is thinking and talking, and which promises to be the chief question on which the next Presidential election will turn, Mr. Taft is from the nature of the case on the defensive. His speeches inevitably take on the air of an apology. In 1909 he sought to explain why he did not veto the Payne-Aldrich bill; this year he has to explain why he did not sign the Wool bill. But an aggressive course cannot be taken by a man who begins by excusing himself. Aside from that, all this newspaper talk about Mr. Taft's "carrying the war into Africa" assumes that he is contemplating an act of stupendous political folly. Will he, by openly assailing the Insurgents, seek to tear his party more hopelessly asunder? And he must know by this time that the Insurgents are to be classed among those very *méchant* animals of the French saying, which, when they are attacked, defend themselves. They will be sure to give the President as good as he sends, if not rather better. They have nothing to lose in continuing to oppose the President; he has nothing to gain by rushing into a fight with them. He will find opponents enough and hear hard words enough without going out of his way to hunt for either.

No phrase in American politics is more deceptive than "an era of good feeling." While you are trying to define what it means, the thing itself vanishes. In the political sense, it is now gone for Mr. Taft. The kindliest personal feeling for him will not prevent the furbishing up of every weapon that can be used against him as a candidate. The stern realities of partisan warfare must now be faced by one who has never shown that he had a large share of the joy of political combat.

THE LAWYER'S PUBLIC DUTIES.

Last week's meetings of the American Bar Association have served again to show how keen is the interest which our leading lawyers take in public questions. From eminent members of the bar and from retired judges we have had able and stimulating discussion of such subjects as the judicial recall, the reform of legal procedure, the regulation of public-utility corporations, and governmental control of rates and prices. These matters are debated by the lawyers as primarily affecting their own profession. Yet few of the speakers at the Bar Association have been content to argue *pro domo suâ*. They have seen clearly that all these questions, while having a peculiar importance for them professionally, are also "affected with a public interest." In consequence we have had papers and addresses from leaders of the bar, pitched in the tone of disinterested and patriotic advice or warning. At such gatherings we get more vividly than is customary elsewhere reminders of the sense of obligation to the public which our most conscientious lawyers feel.

If this ought to be acute and constant

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in any country, it surely should be so in the United States. For we are, as a nation, governed by lawyers. They fill our Legislatures and outnumber all other elements in Congress and occupy most of our high executive offices. If the laws of this land and their administration are not what they should be, lawyers are largely responsible. We do not say that any Bar Association can find or apply the remedy, but it is obvious that it cannot refuse to consider seriously these questions which are vital to the legal profession because they are vital to the country. Not every lawyer can go to a State Legislature or Congress, or can actively shape the ongoing of public affairs, but all lawyers ought to realize that they are under a peculiar obligation to volunteer their services in times of political crisis and to be ready at any moment to contribute everything within their power to the improvement of the laws and of the processes of justice.

We have never been in this country without such public-spirited lawyers; though it may be doubted if during the past twenty years we have had so many of them, and of such weight, as we had in the decades previous. In this city and State, at least, most observers would agree that such is the fact. Mr. Bryce has remarked a falling off in this respect since his first visits to America. He thinks that the community cannot now count upon the services of distinguished lawyers and jurists, like the late James C. Carter, with as much certainty as we could between 1870 and 1890. There are reasons for the change—reasons, some of them, having to do with new aspects of the legal profession. Some of our greatest and most successful lawyers are scarcely known to the general public; and to have due influence as a public adviser a man must not only be in good repute with his professional associates but must have a civic standing that will entitle him to be heard. It takes, indeed, a rare combination of professional attainment and public spirit to make a lawyer ideally fitted to discharge his duties and rise to his opportunities as a citizen.

Such a combination was seen in that ornament which the English bar has just lost in the person of Lord James of Hereford. Able by talent and industry to conquer a place for himself among the leaders of his profession, he was also a lawyer who took his public duties with great seriousness and was most scrupulous in their discharge. Having held office as Solicitor-General and afterwards as Attorney-General, he met the crisis of his life in 1886, when the great prize of the Chancellorship was offered him by Mr. Gladstone. But Lord James was strongly opposed to Irish Home Rule, and Mr. Gladstone's was a Home Rule Government. It was a case of conscience. A story current at the time was that he took some of his most violent anti-Home Rule speeches to Mr. Gladstone, and asked him if he really thought their author could accept the Great Seal from a Home Rule Prime Minister. Mr. Gladstone, on reflection, ruefully admitted that he did not think he could. At all events, Lord James refused the offer. In a speech to his constituents a little later he gave an explanation which not only reflects credit on him but shows how zealously he guarded the reputation and the influence of his profession. He said:

> I belong to a profession often attacked, often slandered. It has many great prizes which must be gathered by some members of it, and so it comes to pass that the accusation is often made that members of the bar enter upon and fashion their political career in order to obtain some of the prizes. To that great profession I am more indebted than most men. I worked my way into its ranks. For thirty years I have remained there. There my friendships have been formed. If you deem it presumptuous in me to say that I have succeeded in my calling, still some would call me ungrateful if I failed to say so. At any rate, for five years I have enjoyed the high privilege of occupying the office which rendered me the leader of the bar, and I felt that it was a duty, almost a special call upon me, that I should so act that no man should be enabled to point to my conduct as proof that the bar of England was composed of men who were unfit to take their part in political life, and I hope I have done so.

THE MAKING OF HOOLIGANS.

England has been going through a time of deep heart-searching since the strikes and the riots. What has startled and alarmed her is not the new demonstration of the solidarity and aggressiveness of her laboring men, not the paralysis of transportation which in a day fell upon the country and made London and Liverpool and Manchester look like besieged cities, but the sudden displays of brutality and ferocity, the appearance in street fights of masses of ruffians. Alongside the striker loomed the much more ominous figure of the hooligan. In place after place the bands of rowdies threw bottles at the police and terrified the vicinity, smashing windows and looting and yelling as if the nether world had let loose fiends. Looking back upon this stirring up of hell from beneath, this outpouring of depraved beings from slum and garret, thoughtful Englishmen are not wrong in thinking that they see a national peril, and a national disgrace, blacker than any possible foreign foe or the loss of a battle.

Public men, teachers, clergymen, aghast at the outburst of riotous hooliganism, are asking what has caused and what can cure it. We are bound to say that in their utterances and their letters to the press, one does not get very much light or help. The symptoms are vividly described. Remedies, however, are not prescribed with a sure hand. Those who speak for the Church naturally come out very strong on the restraints of religion, and on the need of developing a spirit of submission to authority. They confess, too, that the churches have been guilty of neglect of duty, and have more and more drawn away from the classes in which, it now appears, rowdies and incendiaries have been created wholesale. But how to carry the gospel to the masses, how to induce the masses to listen to it and accept it—that problem the excellent intentions of the people we refer to certainly will not by themselves solve. Something is gained, however, by the mere acknowledgment of an evil state of affairs. This at least puts earnest minds upon search for the causes; and to weigh and sift them is the first step.

Economic and industrial conditions unquestionably have tended in England to produce the raw material of the street ruffian. An enormous amount of casual labor exists. Fitful employment means intermittent idleness, and mischief is easily found for idle hands to do. The danger arising from great numbers of men employed only casually was dwelt upon at length in Parliament a few years ago by Winston Churchill and others. What they then said about the folly of leaving such inflammable stuff about, sure to be lighted by agitators in a time of crisis, was fully borne out by the appalling occurrences in Liverpool

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and elsewhere. Drink and wretchedness do not exhaust their force in making private victims; the public is certain to suffer in the end, as surely as from neglected disease germs. The social body is one organism, and poison in the extremities will infallibly make the head reel and the heart sick.

Whatever it is that has spawned so many lawless and desperate men in England—and all countries have their full quota of them—the question remains: What is the propelling force that sets them in motion? Granted the existence of anti-social passions and destroying instincts, something must inflame them and suggest to them methods of violence before they can burst out in such ways as recently horrified England. And those social philosophers and students of public affairs cannot be wrong who point to the exaltation of force as at least one fount and source of these evils. Many a politician, many a high-placed official, many an aristocrat, who stood in consternation at the excesses of the hooligan had really helped to spur him to his mad courses. The trouble with him is, avers the Churchman, that he sets all authority at defiance. He undertakes to get what he wants by fist and club. Well, but could he not point to Lord Hugh Cecil at the head of a yelling mob in the House of Commons, composed of men representing the best blood in England? Could he not point to the Conservative public men who have said that if Home Rule were granted to Ireland by act of Parliament they would resist it to the death? It was not a hooligan but a Duke—the Duke of Abercorn—who telegraphed a few days ago to a meeting at Derry, where violent Unionist speeches were made in denunciation of the King's readiness to assent to Home Rule: "The time will shortly arrive when action, not words, will be necessary." This could only mean, and was taken to mean, a variation of the old cry: "Ulster will fight and Ulster will be right." But this, as expressing the determination not to submit to the will of the people as enacted by Parliament, is of the essence of hooliganism; and the noblemen and honored public men who take that attitude are in no way to be discriminated from the dockers and corner-ruffians who charged the police and showered missiles upon the troops.

No country is entitled to point the finger of scorn at England in this matter of possessing the potential elements of riot and pillaging. We in this land, and particularly in New York city, see the making of the hooligan going on all the time. The rowdy multiplies faster than the "strong-arm" policemen. Disorder and ruffianism break out on the slightest provocation. And it behooves us all, especially those set in authority, to see to it not only that the laws be upheld and every form of mob violence sternly put down, but that no example of disrespect for the law, no prompting to brutality, no glorification of might above right, come from above.

INDIVIDUALITY AND TEACHING.

A special committee of the National Educational Association declared in a report on high schools and colleges: "It ought to be possible for any strong high school to introduce into its curriculum any subject that meets the peculiar needs of that community or that appears to be the most appropriate vehicle for teachers of pronounced individuality." What is "pronounced individuality," and how "pronounced" must it be to give a teacher the right to free choice of his subject? Independence and freedom are in the abstract excellent things; but school-teaching is a very concrete affair, with concrete boys and girls to work on. If teachers begin to ask for free play for their individuality, parents may well inquire what it is that the teachers ask to be freed from.

If the teachers answer, freedom from a deadening round, freedom to teach only what they best like to teach or only what they think they can teach best, the parents may well suggest that children have rights, too, and that there is no sound work in the world that does not involve the kind of repetition of small acts and the close attention to small details which some people call drudgery. A doctor meets a multitude of petty ailments; a business man has his daily round of letters and office work; yet from them one does not hear the complaint that comes from some teachers, for they take the tedious details as part of the day's work, and look beyond these to the end that is to be attained. The man who sees his work as a whole, and keeps large objects in view, is not bored by details. It is the man without this power of imagination who is bound on the wheel of things: he is the bank clerk, the draughtsman, the bookkeeper; and for him salvation lies in letting work sink into a habit, so that he can get through long stretches of it with hardly an effort of conscious thought.

For the making of such drudges school-teaching provides as much material as other occupations, but no more. Year after year a teacher must carry his classes through the rudiments of his subjects, and the rudiments of all subjects can be made dull. His pupils are at the time of life when they find the bright truths of eternity in commonplaces and truisms; and each new class leaps at the old teachings with the same readiness. There are, to be sure, the laggards who must be hauled along at the expense of the teacher's last ounce of reserved strength, and in time that the teacher ought to have for rest. In all this the teacher never gets to the part of his subject where there is the zest of exploration or of difference of opinion, and it is easy to dress up such facts so as to set every one pitying the poor galley-slave of a teacher.

But the born teacher does not look on himself as a galley-slave: he thinks his profession the most stimulating and the most worthy of all. How does he keep himself out of the bookkeeper class? How can teachers hold to their birthright in the life of the intellect and the imagination? They cannot do it by making their own subjects, for pupils must be instructed in knowledge which is commonplace because it is the foundation of all knowledge. One sometimes meets a teacher of English who rebels against the uniform lists of reading used in high schools: they compel him to teach books that he finds uninteresting, he declares. But how about the pupils? If a teacher of English happens to be bored by Shakespeare, shall his pupils go through school with no introduction to Shakespeare? Teachers must deal with many subjects which have no vivid interest for them, simply because it is the right of each generation of school children to have their share in the general knowledge of the race.

The recommendation of this committee that the teacher "of pronounced individuality" should choose his own vehicle of instruction can, therefore, ap-

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ply to extremely few teachers. Occasionally there are men or women with a remarkable faculty of teaching whose capacity is limited to a special subject. The instant, however, it is assumed that persons "of pronounced individuality" may be found in the service of the ordinary high school, even in that of the strong high school, there is danger. If we begin to look for these geniuses every day, it may easily become a sign of inferiority (to be distinguished by a smaller salary) not to have the pronounced individuality that is proved by some personally invented subject. Then every teacher would be on the hunt for his chance at something new and individual, about which he could print papers in the pedagogical journals, so that his pronounced individuality might become a source of pride and complacency to his principal and his school committee. We need not push the point too far, for the doctrine laid down by the committee was probably intended only for the rare exception. But it will be a bad day for the schools if the idea gains ground that success in teaching can be reached only through novelty. What we need is to recognize that an energetic mind and a sympathetic imagination can in each succeeding year put fresh life into subjects which have been taught for centuries.

PEDAGOGY AND THE TEACHER.

In the "Protagoras" Plato gives us a picture of Socrates escorting the youth Hippocrates to the house of Callias for the purpose of presenting him to the celebrated sophist Protagoras of Abdera, who has arrived in Athens two days before. The introduction takes the form of a question: "Protagoras, this is my friend Hippocrates, who is desirous of making your acquaintance; he would like to know what will happen to him if he associates with you." To this Protagoras replies: "Young man, if you associate with me, on the very first day you will return home a better man than you came, and better on the second day than on the first, and better every day than on the day before."

The tone of this announcement is singularly modern and familiar, and by its familiarity illuminating. Who are the sophists of these latter days? Not the lawyers and judges, upon whom the title is popularly conferred, for they at most have inherited the sophistic method of making the worse the better reason. The real sophists are the professors of the science and art of education. It is they who have inherited the general attitude and point of view, and it is they who in modern education hold the position assigned by Plato to Protagoras, Gorgias, and Hippias. In Plato's Dialogue, we remember, Socrates questions the assertion of Protagoras that virtue can be taught. Now, whether virtue can be taught or not, we shall all agree with Socrates in holding that it cannot be taught by rule of thumb at so much a lesson. Yet here is a profession which pretends to produce a quality no less personal than virtue, no less the fruit of experience and maturity, if, indeed, it is not mainly virtue itself, by the same short and easy method; and which then succeeds in incorporating its pretensions in the law of the state. The State of Indiana (one out of many) says to the graduates of its high schools who are intending to teach, virtually this: "Young man (or young woman), if you associate with the professors of pedagogy for twelve weeks, and, among other things, listen to their wisdom regarding the science of education, you will be fit to teach—for one year. After that, twelve weeks more of their society will send you home a better teacher than before and fit to receive a longer license and a larger minimum salary. A third twelve weeks will produce a corresponding spiritual and pecuniary improvement. A degree from the State Normal School will render you, after two years of successful experience, fit to teach for life; but the degree of bachelor of arts from the State University will produce no fitness whatever—except as it covers the requirement of pedagogy." It may be doubted whether a better example could be found of a tariff-protected industry.

I.

We might derive considerable amusement from these latter-day sophists, were it not that for some time past they have been getting their amusement out of us. Early in the era of academic expansion it was perceived that a rich and permanent source for the numbers that are supposed to attract endowments and appropriations lay in the prospective teachers; and to-day it may be said that an important part of the work of all of our universities, and the mainstay of the Western institutions, is the training of teachers for the secondary schools. To bring the teachers to the university a department of education is established which offers to furnish professional training upon a scientific basis.

Yet wherein does the pedagogy of the university differ from that of the despised normal school? To this question, put formally to a representative of the subject, the answer was given that, "It treats the subject from a university standpoint." I suspect, however, that the response expressed, even for the respondent, a good intention and a hope. For the present the pedagogy of the university shows no superiority over the common brand. It has no more ideas to offer, and it attracts hardly a better grade of students. What it really does is to introduce the normal school point of view into the university. The idea of vocational training, already too prominent, is substituted for that of intellectual discipline and personal culture, and vocational training is then translated into job-getting. At the same time a class of students is brought to the university to whom "the idea of a university" is foreign and unintelligible, and perhaps the entrance-bars are lowered to let them in. Often painfully illiterate and deplorably in need of the power of forming a few simple and clear ideas, in spite of the technical completion of a high school course, these students are then dosed with platitudes about the social function of the school and the aims and methods of education. Such is the general situation. Familiarity with its character would suggest that what the public school teacher especially needs to learn, and what the university is especially called upon to teach him, is just this—that his real efficiency as a teacher, and his ability to speak to his boys and girls from the standpoint of personal and social authority, will depend in the last analysis, not upon any mastery of the "formal principles of method," or what not, but upon the soundness and breadth of his knowledge and upon the evidence in himself of a thoughtful attitude toward life. With this idea, however, the pedagogy of the university, as of the normal school, is wholly unfamiliar.

The natural result of the policy of expansion through pedagogy is to give a commanding position in academic affairs to a set of men whose chief interest lies in—let us call it management. In the university, as in the State, the professional managers of affairs are always "on the job," and the college professor who is absorbed in the work of teaching and study awakes to find, like the private citizen at election-time, that the conditions in which he is supposed to have a voice have been quietly determined for him. There is nothing strange in this. One of the stock courses of pedagogy is on School Management, in which, as I have heard, the unpublished chapter on the management of school boards is no unimportant part of the text; and the function of the school of pedagogy in the university is less to teach than to keep the university in touch with the schools, bringing the graduates of the high schools to the university as students and getting them back again as teachers. Management, however, is the theory of pedagogy. What it teaches is not the training of children, and never their discipline, but their management. Avoid compulsion; use indirect suggestion; never speak of

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"work"; and above all place no strain upon the mind. I am told, indeed, that the older "soft pedagogy" has been somewhat unsettled of late years by the appearance of a work in which some excellent psychology was expended upon a careful demonstration of the necessity of intellectual effort; but, at least until recently, the above were the accepted principles. Moreover, the professors of the art may be said to be conceived in management. The older generation has been drawn from the school superintendents, who may be capable teachers and executives, though not necessarily instructive in expounding the philosophy of education. The newer generation, however, is furnished ready-made by the Ph.D. mills (I have high authority for the phrase), especially those having branch factories known as colleges of education or teachers' colleges. The most important part of the machinery is that which places the product, and the test of efficiency is what it will place. I have heard of a machine which appears to be capable of filling any chair of pedagogy with any human being.

If we except a few excellent works on the history of education, it may be said that the literature of pedagogy as a science has contributed virtually nothing either to scholarship or to ideas. This is not to deny that a few men of ideas who were getting them elsewhere have had something good to say. Curiously enough, these occasional and unprofessional contributions to the subject are apt to be the most prized. Within the professional field, however, there are no men to measure with the larger men of other fields, and, with two or three respectable but not brilliant exceptions, the whole literature is banal and inane. In strange contrast to its modernist pretensions, educational philosophy reads like nothing so much as a volume of old-fashioned sermons, the most conspicuous feature of its style being Parson Thirdly's substitution of methodical division for thoughtful analysis. As a random illustration, in one of the later pedagogical works I find that the following are required for the training of memory: (1) Health; (2) avoidance of brain-fatigue; (3) making first impressions vivid; (4) repetition; (5) following memory with understanding; (6) improving the habit of study; (7) making pupils think; (8) training also indirectly through the acquiring and assimilating powers of the mind. It requires no very keen eye to see that the second point virtually repeats the first, and that the fifth, seventh, and eighth are identical—unless, indeed, we are to assume that thinking and understanding are different things and that both are different from acquisition (*i. e.*, mental acquisition) and assimilation.

What is true of the peaks is true of the general level of the range. It seems a dangerous statement, but I believe that, if released from the obligations of professorial courtesy, a nine-tenths vote of our college professors would support me in saying that, as a rule, the professors of education are the least educated men in the university faculty, from the standpoint either of general culture or of special attainment. I say "as a rule," because there are exceptions; they, however, would vote with the nine-tenths. Such is likewise the feeling of the body of students toward the department as a whole. In the university generally mention of the department of pedagogy is very likely to be accompanied by a smile. Pedagogical courses are everywhere regarded as snap courses, and pedagogical methods of teaching are usually the worst. The favorite method is to send the student to the library with a long list of miscellaneous references, from which he is to fill a notebook or present a "report." The notebook serves as a test; but I have known of courses where, without a shadow of test of any kind, everybody passed and received credit toward a degree of bachelor of arts. Of course, one may reply, there may still be ideas. I have made it a practice, however, for some years past, to inflict an informal *questionnaire* upon older students of several institutions who had taken pedagogical courses—many of them men of thirty or so who had taught a few years—to ascertain their impressions; and the nearly universal verdict has been that, up to the present, pedagogy has little or nothing to say. Some of these students have manifested considerable impatience over the character of the work which had been put before them as "professional" and "scientific."

II.

The pedagogical sophistic, as rhetorically presented by one of the professors of the art, runs somewhat as follows: "Would you entrust your sick child to a physician without a diploma? In providing for him in your will, would you consult an attorney unread in law? How, then, can you think of entrusting the development of his mind to a teacher untrained in the science of teaching?" The argument is plausible and may easily deceive; for it is a question of fact. Those in position to know the facts will see a clear case of false analogy. Scientific training is valuable to the physician because medical science possesses a body of definite fact and established principle which would be inaccessible to untrained observation and common sense; and, further, because, although much must be left to the judgment of the practitioner, between medical science and medical practice there is a fairly definite relation. The science of education has virtually no establishment whatever. In plain terms, it is mostly a science on paper, hastily got together *ad hoc*, by a process of forced abstraction, to meet the demands of a professional analogy. At the very best it is one of those "new sciences of human nature" whose claim to be scientific rests upon good intention. And between its science and its practice there is only the vaguest relation. The physician with a difficult case can turn to his "Practice of Medicine" and find some definite and enlightening instructions. The teacher, having diagnosed a case as laziness, turns to his "Practice of Pedagogy," and finds something like this: "Diligence: (1) Teach practically; utilize activity. (2) Fix pleasant associations with work. (3) Use exposition with older scholars. (4) Seek cause of laziness and root it out. (5) Allow for disposition." Or, inquiring for a method of holding his pupils' attention, he learns that he is to apply a judicious mixture of incentives immediate and remote—which not only furnishes no information, but fails to grasp the real question, namely, how to obtain attention for the *subject*.

The scientific basis of education is psychology, and the special brand of psychology used for the purpose is called "educational psychology." No work in educational psychology holds a position of authority as psychology; that is, to put it mildly, there is nothing which approaches the great works of Wundt, James, and Stout, or Ward's article in the Britannica. Just why it should be distinguished as educational psychology, I have never been able to make out, for the textbooks show little distinctive subject-matter. One or two who have taught the subject have whispered into my ear that it was just psychology; and this was confirmed by the fact that in one institution the course in general psychology given under "philosophy" was parallelled by a course in educational psychology in the department of pedagogy, which used the same text and printed a syllabus covering the same topics. The students, however, distinguished the courses as "the men's psychology" and "the girls' psychology." Educational psychology is supposed, of course, to work out the educational corollaries of psychological analysis. But the truth is that the points of contact are surprisingly few, and, for the most part, the educational applications are either highly vague or, as James would say, "the unprofitable delineation of the obvious." Here are some typical examination-questions, all from one paper: "What facts, in your opinion, render a human being capable of education? Explain what is meant by exactness and thoroughness in education? Is it important that the teacher shall understand the emotional nature of children? Do you accept or reject the old doctrine of mental faculties?"

The older style of educational psy-

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chology is much occupied with an unintelligent elaboration of Herbartian "apperception," ignoring the improvements introduced into that conception since Herbart. The newer style, nothing if not scientific, is given to measurement and statistics and is much interested in a discussion of the value (*i. e.*, the entire lack of value) of general training, or "formal discipline." The importance of this question may be easily appreciated; for if general training *is* important, it is all up with pedagogy. But we shall hardly abandon our faith in intellectual discipline upon such opaque grounds as these: Of thirty students, those who ranked well in English ranked variously in Latin, French, and German; young children trained to discriminate blues had improved little if any in the discrimination of lengths and weights; adults who by special practice had improved greatly in their accuracy in estimating long lines, had made no improvement in their power to estimate short lines; and an untold quantity of like evidence, all of which, as it seems to me, curiously misses the point. For few would hold that extension of power into other fields comes from the blind cultivation of a habit, but only from the exercise of thinking. But this exercise of thinking is just the last thing to be obtained by laboratory methods.

Other staple articles of trade are the history and philosophy of education. I have already indicated my respect for the history of education as a subject for scholarship. The history of any form of education related to our public schools is, however, exceedingly brief, and the "practical" value for the teacher of a study of mediæval universities or a discussion of Plato's arrangement of music, gymnastics, mathematics, and story-telling is very difficult to see—especially under a régime where, thanks to pedagogy, the freedom of the teacher is ever more restricted. On the other hand, for the philosophy of education there is no establishment of ideas, that is to say, no store of philosophical literature. It must not be forgotten that the justification of philosophy in the academic curriculum is its rich endowment of literature, to which the best minds of all ages have contributed from Plato to the present day. For the philosophy of education the philosophers have little to offer. One or two books of "The Republic," a book of Aristotle's "Politics," Locke's "Thoughts," some perfunctory lectures of Kant, Herbart's pedagogical writings, and Spencer's essay are nearly all. Hence, for the purpose of a philosophy of education, the philosophers are lugged in by the heels; and here, as in some other courses, notably those in "social education," a pretentious curriculum is filled out by duplicating the work of other departments.

III.

And now, what is to be done about it? For one thing, the teachers are in the university to stay, and it is well that it should be so. No finer opportunity could be offered for making the influence of the university felt in the community as a whole; no class of students should have a better right to be there, and none should be more welcome. But if the university is to be of service to the teacher, then it must be said that no need of the teaching profession is clearer at present than that of a sound and liberal education. So fundamental is this need that the science and art of teaching sink into humorous insignificance. On the other hand, the duty rests upon the university to see that its degree of bachelor of arts is solid at all points.

Accordingly, I believe that university men should stand fast for the principle that the degree of bachelor of arts from a reputable college should constitute in itself, without pedagogy, a license to teach in the secondary schools, as against any degree of inferior academic rank; and any qualification of this principle should be in favor of the higher scholarship. If it be objected that a bachelor of arts is not necessarily acquainted with methods of teaching, the simple reply may be that he has been taught for fourteen to sixteen years past by a great variety of methods. It is curious that pedagogy never thinks of this, for just in this way are the good teachers made—by the intelligent adaptation of the best methods by which they themselves have been taught.

As for the study of education as a special discipline apart from sociology, psychology, and ethics, all that I can say is that a subject whose problems are so complex, and so broadly involved in all the problems of social order, of civilization, and of life itself, belongs in the graduate school. This suggestion should be pleasing to those who uphold the dignity of the subject, but I fear rather that it will be regarded as a repetition of Swift's "modest proposal."

WARNER FITE.

NEW FRENCH BOOKS.

PARIS, August 18.

"Le Secret de Dubois, Cardinal et Premier Ministre" (A. Colin; 448 pages, 8vo, 10 francs), by Emile Bourgeois, is the author's third and last volume devoted to the beginnings of the Secret Diplomacy of the eighteenth century. The first volume investigated the "Secret" of the Regent, with the policy of the Abbé Dubois in the Triple and Quadruple Alliances from 1716 to 1718; the second, that of the Farnesi and Philip V, with the policy of Alberoni. The present volume takes the investigation down to 1723, the year of the death of Dubois, shortly after the declaration of Louis XV's majority.

It is some years since an historical work of this magnitude has been brought to a conclusion in France. It is twenty years since Professor Bourgeois began reading at the Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques, whose laureate he was, the results of his documentary work in the history of Alberoni and Elisabeth Farnese. During the years in which he trained to research the students of the old Ecole Normale, whose pupil he had himself been, and in his chair of diplomatic and political history at the University of Paris, he has persevered in digging deeper his special groove. His work may not be conclusive in every respect; and he has kept well within the bounds of his peculiar subject, which is not the complete history of France during the years studied, but France, Rome, all Europe involved in the tortuous diplomacy of the Regent and Dubois. It is possible that he has left little to be done in its documentary study, where long experience and facilities for research in public archives have given him easy mastery. Future study must rather bear on the proper understanding of the ideas of the men whose words are written and whose deeds are recorded in the documents. Meanwhile, these three volumes are necessary even to the general reader of this portion of French history, in which the abuses and, worse still, the inefficiency of the old order were leading straight to revolution in France.

The style is clear, though somewhat heavy for a French historian; and there is a lack of the literary arrangement which, in history, serves to bring out the logic of events. The references, sufficiently full otherwise, are confined to footnotes, with no analysis of sources and no index, but with a detailed table of contents. Perhaps the diplomacy of England, which was little less tortuous than that of the Regent and Dubois, to the great advantage of the house of Hanover, has been studied with too limited reference to the concurrent secret diplomacy of France. In the various Roman questions, mainly connected with the ending of Jansenists as Roman Catholics and the "submission of the Church of France," there is an ignoring, perhaps ignorance, of Roman Catholic religion and church law and operations. Instances are: the canonical position of Lafiteau; the logical, quite as much as religious, force acting on Innocent XIII equally with Clement XI, although the author acknowledges in passing the vital distinction between Roman political relations in France and Spain and the underlying religious needs of Roman Catholics in those countries; the life and character of Daubenton, apart from his position as royal confessor at Madrid, without which his

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irruption into diplomacy cannot be appreciated with fairness to himself and his cause. In the immensely important story of Law, while M. Bourgeois follows good financial authority, the three projects of this man whose work in part and ideas in totality still exist or periodically reappear are not sufficiently distinguished. All this simply means that the best documentary research does not, by itself, unfold the ideas which issue from the back of heads and make history.

"Pascal, sa vie religieuse" (G. Beauchesne; 427 pages, 8vo), by H. Petitot, theological professor in the Ecole Biblique of Jerusalem, and "Les derniers jours de Blaise Pascal" (H. Champion; 70 pages), by A. Gazier, add something to our knowledge of that uneasy genius who, in life and in death, equally disquiets friends and foes. The more considerable work of Père Petitot is of peculiar value, even after the judicious pages of Professor Strowski. From the inside of Catholicism—and his hero, living and dying, thought himself a Roman Catholic—he weighs carefully all that remains to show Pascal's veritable religious life, and (in a second part) the real process and meaning of his defence of Christianity. The book shows competent acquaintance with the enormous literature of the subject, and with the original sources; and its judgments are guided by what is still more uncommon, a knowledge of Roman Catholic ideas and teaching in Pascal's time. As his own religious order is not concerned historically in the attacks of the "Provinciales," it has been easy for the author to execute his task with all the impartiality that we have a right to demand.

In the recent controversy started by the publication of memoirs of the priest who heard Pascal's deathbed confession, Père Petitot agrees substantially with M. Gazier, who is a Jansenist *contra mundum*, that Pascal made no essential retractation of his controversial writings. M. Gazier might accept an attenuation in his attitude toward Molina on predestination, but never toward the casuistry of Molina's brethren. Pascal, asked by his sister if he had read the books which he attacked, answered indignantly: "Why should I read bad books?" He added that their authors formed one, however empoisoned, of the twelve accredited fountains of instruction in the church. Now the church, he assured his sister, was as the body, of which the Pope was the head; and he does not seem ever to have considered the possibility of his being cut off from the head. He would perhaps have defended his resistance by the distinction which De Maistre caught up from the succeeding generation between the indefectible Roman See and its fallible occupant; but even this was rejected by Bossuet in his controversy with Fénelon. Perhaps the best explanation of what seems contradictory to outsiders is the obvious fact that Pascal was not a theologian.

"Autour d'un Racine ignoré" (Mercure de France; 440 pages, 7.50 francs), by A. Masson-Forestier, is one of those surprising books in which Port-Royal pops up again, to speak with reverence, and which do so irritate that usually placid censor of French literary history, Emile Faguet. The author is descended from Racine's family, and, in looking up his genealogical tree, he has acquired grave doubts of Port-Royal's formative influence upon his ancestor. By race, family, environment, and the known facts of his life, Racine, he assures us, was not the gentle, momentarily backsliding saint of the Jansenist legend, but a full-blooded, passionate, cruel, selfish lover. The book is entertaining reading, not without clear flashes in the dark night, significant of things which many readers of French literature do not divine. "A miracle it is, in sooth, that Racine held out to live, that he was able to withstand the fearful forces which, turn by turn, threatened him without let or stop—his cruel Jansenist family; the furious sensuality, 'Venus holding to her prey,' which was an infliction of his blood; and then that abominable wild beast who, at Versailles, held in his hand, says Goethe, the life and death of a Racine!"

"Les Ecrivains français jugés par leurs contemporains" (first volume, sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; P. Delaplane; 680 pages, 4.50 francs), by Marcel Hervier, although intended for college classes, deserves a place among professed historical works. As a textbook it is worthy of all commendation. It reaches from Clément Marot to Fénelon, including Rabelais, Ronsard, Montaigne, Malherbe, Corneille, Pascal, Madame de Sévigné, Molière, Boileau, Racine, La Fontaine, Bossuet, La Bruyère, Bourdaloue, and less but shining lights like Descartes, La Rochefoucauld, and others of a fairly complete list. With connecting links of dates, history, and intelligent comment, the book gives typical passages of the authors, and then pertinent criticisms and appreciations of their contemporaries. The concentrated history, of almost documentary kind, which is the result, is over and above the literature of the pages. Thus, since Pascal is uppermost, Nicole, who furnished him with citations, is here heard in his own pertinent words; Père Daniel, whose answer is little known, is allowed fair play, as is even the grave Bourdaloue, pursuing the controversialist with his own arms in a sermon on *médisance*. Acquaintance with these judgments of the time reads us somehow into the time's history, a most difficult and desirable thing. Another school-book, "Fénelon, pages choisies" (A. Colin; 400 pages, 3.50 francs), follows another method for a different purpose, to give us a concise knowledge of the voluminous work of one great writer. This, too, is excellently done as history. S. D.

Correspondence

THE EFFICIENCY OF THE STUDENT OF GREEK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Greek is disappearing from the secondary school at the instance of those who question its "efficiency." A "practical age" needs facts and figures. And to meet this need evidence is beginning to come in to show that the substitutes for this time-honored discipline are unable to do the thing that a college preparatory education should do—fit a boy to carry on a college course with credit to himself, and to those who have toiled to prepare him. Recent articles emanating from the departments of Latin and Greek, at Dartmouth College, have shown how largely the best scholars in all fields, including that of natural science, are recruited from the men who have been trained in the ancient classics. Having noticed at Wesleyan the prominence of the students of Greek in the honor lists at several successive commencements, I was impelled, even before the appearance of the evidence from Dartmouth, to see if the superiority of the "Greeks" ran through a series of years, and what, if any, were its limitations.

At Wesleyan, as elsewhere in New England, the study of Greek in college was long essential to the attainment of the B.A. degree. To those who presented only Latin for admission the degree of bachelor of philosophy was awarded; those who presented neither ancient language were candidates for the degree of bachelor of science. The number that commenced the course leading to each of these degrees was nearly equal, with a slight tendency to an increase in the number of the science men and a decrease in that of the students of Greek. In 1907 Wesleyan saw a great light—a reflection of that which had previously dawned upon most of her sister colleges. Greek was omitted from the requirements for the B.A., and the degree of bachelor of philosophy was no longer awarded. The effect was a drop, very marked from the beginning, in the number of students presenting Greek for admission, and an increase in the number of candidates for the B.S.

My figures are taken from the records of the classes of 1904-1913, in the years 1904-1911. During the greater part of this time Wesleyan was nominally co-educational and had from six to a dozen women in each class. My figures, however, deal only with the men, except in the matter of prizes, where the women are included in the reckoning. I shall let G denote the students of Greek, L those of Latin, and S the candidates for the B.S.

A further word of explanation must preface the table. "High honors" in general scholarship, are awarded to those who have received first grade on at least forty-six hours' work, second grade on at least ten

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hours additional, and who have never fallen below third grade. "Honors" are granted for a distinctly lower grade of work. The winner of these must have received third grade on at least fifty hours' work, and as many first as fourth grades, and must never have fallen below fourth grade, that is, must never have failed in any course. Furthermore, each class at Wesleyan suffers heavy loss between entrance and graduation. Few leave by request, perhaps fewer still for reasons purely pecuniary; the large majority drop out because of failing interest and poor scholarship. The figures in the following table must be read in the light of the first two sections of it. Some will think the first section offers the fairest basis for estimating the efficiency of the student of Greek; some will prefer to use the second.

TABLE OF PERCENTAGES.

		1904-5	1905-6	1906-7	1907-8	1908-9	1909-10	1910-11	
Percentage entering as freshmen	G	45.6	38.2	45	47.8	36	29.7	28	
	L	28.9	39.7	24.2	23.3	32.1	28.6	36	
	S	25.5	22.1	30.8	28.9	31.9	41.7	36	
Percentage graduating	G	54	38.8	48.2	52.7	38.7	42.8	34.5	
	L	23	42.8	26.8	29.1	29	27	34.5	
	S	23	18.4	26	18.2	32.3	30.2	31	
High honors	G	100	100	100	100	—	66.6	none	
	L	—	—	—	—	100	33.4	awarded	
	S	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Honors	G	56	60	75	69.2	50	68.7	62.5	
	L	21.4	20	16.7	—	20	25	37.5	
	S	28.6	20	8.3	30.8	30	6.3	—	
Elections to Phi Beta Kappa	G	57	75	82	75	50	66.7	63.6	
	L	21	12.5	18	—	25	20	36.4	
	S	21	12.5	—	25	25	13.3	—	
Prizes in group I.	G	50	50	60	57.1	75	100	33.3	
	L	25	50	40	14.3	8.3	—	66.7	
	S	25	—	—	28.6	16.7	—	—	
Prizes in group II.	G	50	80	60	60	70	80	40	
	L	50	20	40	40	30	20	60	
	S	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Prizes in group III.	G	87.5	100	37.5	12.5	—	—	75	
	L	—	—	62.5	37.5	100	33.3	—	
	S	12.5	—	—	50	—	66.7	25	
Members of debating teams, 1905-1911	G	75	66.7	77.8	50	50	66.7	100	
	L	25	33.3	22.2	50	50	33.3	—	
	S	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Members of baseball teams, 1904-1911	G	33.3	36.4	40	20	22.2	20	—	—
	L	33.3	27.2	30	50	55.6	30	—	10
	S	33.3	36.4	30	30	22.2	50	100	90
Members of basketball teams, 1905-1911	G	33.3	33.3	—	—	50	—	—	
	L	33.3	33.3	17	17	16.7	—	33.3	
	S	33.3	33.3	83	83	33.3	100	66.7	
Members of football teams, 1903-1910	G	53.3	23	—	—	12.5	25	21	6.2
	L	20	31	36.4	9.1	31.2	43.8	21	18.8
	S	26.7	46	63.6	81.9	56.3	31.2	58	75
Managers of above teams and of track, 1904-1911	G	50	50	50	50	50	50	75	25
	L	25	50	50	50	25	25	25	75
	S	25	—	—	—	25	25	—	—

Note.—In the records the number of men reckoned as composing the football team varies from eleven to nineteen. The team of 1906 contained one "Special."

I. Concerning the science students the table reveals the following facts:

(1.) Some years ago they were winning their share of honors in general scholarship and of elections to Phi Beta Kappa.

(2.) Their numbers even then showed a greater tendency to shrink in the four years of the course, than did those of the classical men.

(3.) They have never won a "high honor."

(4.) They have frequently, particularly in recent years, won only a small fraction of "honors" and of elections to Phi Beta Kappa.

(5.) They have won no prizes in group II, which consists of history, economics, and philosophy; never their whole share, and frequently much less than their share, in group I (the languages, omitting the classics), and in group III (the sciences).

(6.) They never represent the university on the debating teams.

(7.) They tend increasingly to form the backbone of the baseball, football, and basketball teams.

(8.) They seldom attain the responsibility of a managership.

II. Of Latin students it may be said that:

(1.) There is comparatively little shrinkage in their numbers in the college course, while the proportion of students who enter with Latin but no Greek, tends to increase.

(2.) They seldom obtain "high honors," and have sometimes fallen behind the B.S. men in honors, but not in elections to Phi Beta Kappa.

(3.) In capturing prizes they distinctly surpass the science men, particularly in the language group.

III. Of the students of Greek we see:

(1.) Their number, proportionately to the size of the class, is steadily decreasing.

(2.) The proportion of the "Greeks" who graduate is considerably greater than that of either of the other two classes of students.

(3.) They take virtually all the "high honors," and nearly double their share of "honors" and of elections to Phi Beta Kappa.

(4.) In the capture of prizes their superiority is greatest in group II, but in the language group (not reckoning the ancient languages) they take more than their share, and usually, though not always, outdo the science men in their own field.

(5.) They form the backbone of the debating teams.

(6.) They hold about half the important managerships.

Certain other pertinent facts not shown in the table may be added here. In the period covered by the survey, honors in special departments were awarded to the number of sixteen. Of these ten went to the Greeks, four to the Latin men, two to the science men. Preliminary honors are granted in two fields only, the classics and mathematics. Ignoring the former as not germane to this discussion, we find that (in our period) honors in mathematics have been granted to twelve men, none of whom was a candidate for the B.S., and only five of whom had not offered Greek for admission.

To draw conclusions from these data is a sore temptation for the teacher of Greek. For the present I forbear, leaving my readers to interpret as they will. This much, however, no one can dispute. For some reason or other the students of Greek, numerically fewer than those of either of the other classes, are more than holding their own in all the distinctly academic activities. The Latin students are inferior to them, but superior to the students of the science and of modern languages, who, though usually outnumbering either of the other two classes at entrance, are holding their own in one field only—that of athletics, and have very little share in the management even of that! A better title for this article would perhaps have been "The Inefficiency of the Non-Classical Student."

J. W. HEWITT.

Wesleyan University, August 24.

THE INVERTED PEDANTRY OF INCORRECT ENGLISH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Several laments have recently been made over the bad English of which teachers, especially teachers of English, are sometimes guilty. Is not this bad English, in part at least, a by-product of modern scholarship? Along with the profound and relentless study of origins in language, along with the consequent exalting of the spoken over the written word, there has come a contempt for book grammar, for any authority or conservative force which may tend to restrict individuality of expression. The English professor need not worry about the distinction between *shall* and *will*, for that is merely a matter of "book grammar"; but not to know Grimm's law argues himself unknown. If he betrays ignorance of the difference between *Umlaut* and *Ablaut* in Old English, he is eternally damned; but it is scarcely worth his while to distinguish *lie* and *lay* or *like* and *as*. In fact, the attitude of a good many scholars toward correct English is almost exactly that of Fred Vincy in Middlemarch (I quote from memory): "Correct English is only the slang of the prigs who write essays and history."

These reflections are suggested by a recently published book which is being advertised and no doubt used as a text for college English classes. Its author, a university professor and a doctor of philosophy, is a scholar of the distinctly modern type. Let me say that the book is interesting, consistent in theory, and, in the main, well written. I wish merely to make a few quotations illustrating the author's attitude toward "book grammar," and to raise a question as to the probable influence of his doctrine on the average college student.

As to *lie* and *lay*, the author writes, p. 292:

> The past tense of the verb *lie* is conventionally *lay;* but the form *laid* is also in very general use, especially among persons not held in restraint by academic traditions. An illustration may be cited: "Apparently the bear laid in wait beside the game trails, along which the deer wandered." (Roosevelt, "Hunting the Grizzly," p. 69.)

At first I thought this a gentle criticism

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of the distinguished author quoted; but consider the following as to *shall* and *will:*

If grammar is, as we assume it to be, the usage of the people who employ the language in the practical and effective communication of thought, any theoretical dogmatizings as to the way in which *shall* and *will* or any others ought to be used, will be worse than useless. . . . With the great majority of speakers, . . . with those who must be counted as the average intelligent population of the country, the greatest freedom prevails. Indeed, one may say that where a strong academic standardizing influence has not been brought to bear, *I will* is as generally used for the future as *I shall.* In the face of these facts, it will obviously not do simply to dismiss *I will* as "vulgar" and "incorrect." It is incorrect only according to the system of theoretical, not of practical, grammar, and the notion of its incorrectness is the comparatively recent outgrowth of the modern grammarian's striving after a rigid regulation of the forms of speech. . . . The observation of the widespread popular usage . . . should encourage one to a disagreement with the strict law of the formal or literary usage.

As to *who* and *whom:*

Since this latter construction ("who did you call?") follows the logical tendency of modern grammar, by that test it is correct; and since, moreover, it is in wide colloquial use, it can be condemned in practice only by the believer in the rigid theoretical system of grammar.

As to *like* and *as:*

A colloquialism *like* as a conjunction may be, but indefensible it certainly is not. It is, first of all, a widespread custom of the speech, it has arisen naturally and in the same way that *as* has, and unless one starts from the *a priori* position that there is only one legitimate form of expression for every idea in speech, it makes as strong a bid for favor as the conjunction *as.*

I might quote other passages, but these are perhaps sufficient to indicate the nature of what may be called an inverted pedantry. What is likely to be the influence of such a textbook on the speech and writing of the average college student? Will it not encourage him to persist in every slovenly colloquialism which he has acquired? Will it not strengthen him in the conviction that "correct English is only the slang of the prigs"? And if the next generation of English teachers are brought up on such doctrine as this, what will their speech be?

HOMER E. WOODBRIDGE.

Colorado Springs, August 22.

A LIE THAT POPE DID NOT TELL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: So much has it become the habit of critics of the last two generations to accuse Pope of lying upon all occasions that every admirer of the poet must be pleased to learn that even a single one of his "lies" was really not a lie after all. One of the more recent accusers is Prof. T. R. Lounsbury, who, in an elaborate study of the "Dunciad" in "The Text of Shakespeare" (1906), concludes his thirteenth chapter thus:

. . . It is a striking illustration of the carelessness which Pope had more than once manifested in his edition of Shakespeare that his own numbering of the lines of "The Dunciad," which were to be regarded as authentic, was not true of any edition of it ever published. He gave it as ten hundred and twelve. The editions of 1728 consisted of nine hundred and twenty lines, the three earlier editions of 1729 of ten hundred and fourteen, and the so-called second edition of the same year, followed by the later ones, of ten hundred and eighteen.

"His own numbering" is given by Pope in "A Declaration" affixed to the text of editions of the "Dunciad" after 1730. It is commonly reproduced in modern reprints with the alterations made in 1743, and so I quote here a sentence from an earlier edition: *"Now We,* having carefully revised this our *Dunciad,* beginning with the word *Books,* and ending with the word *flies,* containing the entire Sum of *one thousand and twelve Lines,* do declare every Word, Figure, Point, and Comma of this Impression to be authentic:" etc.

And the edition in which this Declaration probably made its initial appearance does contain just one thousand and twelve lines. I say "probably," because in the uncertainty that still envelops the bibliography of the "Dunciad" it is advisable to speak circumspectly. This particular edition is a rare one; it is the folio mentioned by Col. Grant as K2 in the list given in Volume IV (p. 311) of the Elwin-Courthope edition of Pope's "Works." It is slightly unlike the folio listed as 12 in the Lefferts collection of early editions now in the Harvard Library, but I believe the two folios are variants of the same edition. There is no title-page (the Lefferts folio has one), and consequently the year of publication is uncertain. The date usually assigned to it has been 1732 or 1733, but either of these is too early; internal evidence makes it clear that it appeared either in the latter part of 1734 or, more likely, in 1735. The text is very nearly the same as that of the last of its predecessors, the Second Edition (so called on the title-page), published by Lawton Gilliver in 1729. But two lines of the Second Edition (book iii, lines 209-210) are omitted from the folio. Hence the total number of lines in the folio is 1,012.

Professor Lounsbury states that the Second Edition contains "ten hundred and eighteen lines." This assertion I believe to be an error founded upon a printer's blunder (and again I speak circumspectly and under correction). The number is really 1,014, just as in the preceding editions of the year 1729. The blunder not only misled Professor Lounsbury, but was also a source of puzzlement to Mr. Lefferts, as appears in the following quotations from Mr. Lefferts's manuscript notes now at Harvard:

Some issues of the book [Gilliver's 1729 Second Edition] have the leaf "P3" (pp. 109-110) also cancelled and a new leaf substituted, why it is difficult to determine as there is no change in the verses, and the substituted leaf is very incorrectly printed; having four lines beginning "a second effort brought but new disgrace" (lines 167-170 inc.) printed on and properly belonging to p. 111 reprinted on p. 110 and also leaving out twelve lines of the notes to "Remarks v. 149," necessitating a rearrangement of the type-form. This note in its entirety was given in the previous editions and was repeated in subsequent editions.

It might be presumed that the incorrectly printed leaf appeared in the earlier issues of the book and that this was the one cancelled, while the correctly printed leaf was the substituted one, but the stubs left in the book and a careful separation of the "signatures" show that this was not the case; the correctly printed leaf was originally printed as part of the complete signature and afterwards cancelled and the incorrectly printed leaf was substituted for it.

That is to say, two varieties of this Second Edition are known (the existence of a third variety may be inferred, but I do not know of a copy of it), the difference between them occurring in pp. 109-110. The explanation of how this difference came into being is, I think, not difficult to surmise. It presumes a considerable degree of dumbness of head on the part of the printer; but any man of the many who have corrected one error in galley proof only to find several in its place in the page proof will think the explanation entirely plausible. A volume of Gilliver's first octavo of 1729 was corrected and annotated and sent to the printer to serve as "copy" (as is demonstrable, I think). In setting up page 109 of "copy"—it was to be approximately page 110 of the new book, the Second Edition—a line in a note, the third line from the bottom of the page, was omitted. The new book was printed, the type distributed, and then the omission of the line was discovered, perhaps by Pope himself. "Copy" was given a printer, and he was told to correct the error. Two pages of copy, 108-109, were reset, "copy" being followed closely, the leaf was printed, and without sufficient inspection was pasted on the stub of the old leaf in so many copies of the book as remained unsold. But the old paging and the new did not fit; and, as a consequence, instead of a passage correct except for the omission of one line in a note, we have one in which the notes are badly tangled and four lines of the poem already given on one page are reprinted on the page that faces it.

In counting out the lines—they have to be counted in every edition, for the printer's numbering is not to be depended on—Professor Lounsbury used a copy of the Second Edition that contained the substituted leaf, and so was misled into asserting the presence of 1018 lines, instead of the correct 1014.

And Professor Lounsbury is still further wrong. So far is the Second Edition of 1729 from being "followed by the later ones," that it is followed by none of the editions that I know. The folio has 1012 lines, and so has the quarto ("Works," II) of 1735, issued at the same time as the folio. And we might reasonably expect to find that the number had remained at 1012 in later editions, for Pope had continued his Declaration: "And do, therefore, enjoin and forbid any Person or Persons whatsoever, to erase, reverse, put between Hooks, or by any other means directly or indirectly change or mangle any of them" [his lines]. Yet within a few months, he was disregarding his own injunction. The folio was succeeded by the small octavo published by Gilliver without date, yet almost certainly in 1735, though the bibliographers who have suggested a date have hitherto given 1733; the number of lines in it is 1016, the four additional lines, arising through a revision of book i, 250-256 of the folio. The number of lines remained at 1016 through the four succeeding editions that I have and presumably through all the editions to 1742, though curiously enough the Declaration was not altered from its first form to suit new conditions. In the recasting of the poem to make Cibber the hero, instead of Theobald, the number of lines was considerably enlarged, and the Declaration was revised.

R. H. GRIFFITH.

The University of Texas, August 21.

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THE REAL AMERICAN SPIRIT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been reading an essay, dealing with the relative merits and positions of American men of letters, in which Lowell is regarded as having adhered too closely to European literary convention to be called wholly American. But if Lowell is not American, who is? What is the type American, and what is the American literary character? Must the frontiersman or the out-and-out business man represent the real American spirit? I do not agree that a literary effort must be uncouth, aggressive, and commercial to take its place as a true part of our letters. The literature of a people rises from its culture more readily than from its barbarians. Lowell was an American to his finger-ends—and what an incrimination of this country to suppose that his cultivation made him less so! That active wit, that quick, sane perception and ardent loyalty to ideals, and that brilliant intelligence are the characters extraordinary of the veritable American.

Many feel that a man who does not lend himself willingly to a slap-on-the-back and a jolly tale is a tacit criticism of themselves, and is hence no true American. Are indiscriminate familiarity and the nonchalant impertinence of public officials who feel that to be gracious is to compromise their independence representative marks of American democracy? This is the spirit that has complained of Lowell. Yet his incorruptibility in sentiment and in action, his sincere and ready sympathy, make us wish that such Americans (they exist in all parts of our country) could represent us at all times. Those who knew him know that he brought the traits of his mind and personality to championing his country in a way that the shouting patriots who resent him have helped to defeat.

E. F. STAFFORD.

Boulder, Col., August 20.

THE REFERENDUM IN SWITZERLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of August 24 the reviewer hazards the suggestion "that there is, here and there, something of interest and value in 'Switzerland of the Swiss,' by Frank Webb." Permit me to supply some quotations from the work in question which make timely reading in view of a discussion now current in our country. The initial chapter, entitled A General Survey, has a section on the referendum, from which the following extracts are taken:

> The independent character of each canton allows full scope for political squabbles, which, unfortunately, take up too much of the time of the men. The referendum is a democratic measure that cuts two ways. One can have too much of it. The people are always up in arms and in a constant state of ferment over some trivial question. Legislation is sometimes impossible.
>
> Provided the necessary number of votes demanding the referendum be obtained, the electorate go to the poll. Thus, the cantons are in a constant state of effervescence. In a general way, when the vote is taken the attendance at the poll does not represent 25 per cent. of the electorate.

Advocates of the initiative and referendum have pointed to Switzerland as proving the excellencies of the system, but the testimony of this writer, who has had thirty years' contact with the Switzers, does not justify holding up their example as one to follow.

MAX LOWENTHAL.

Rochester, N. Y., August 29.

RAILWAY ACCIDENTS AND RATE REGULATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: We are told that no one was responsible for the horror on the Lehigh Valley Railroad, which resulted from the breaking of a rail. The rail that gave way had been examined repeatedly, and there was nothing to reveal its rottenness. No one seems to have considered whether it is possible to construct a railway in such a manner that a derailment on a viaduct, bridge, or embankment shall not involve plunging down into an abyss. Nor was the question raised on the occasion of the recent disaster on the New Haven road at Bridgeport. When the spreading of the rails on an embankment wrecked a train laden with school teachers on one of the Pennsylvania lines a few months ago, no one was heard to suggest that embankments, especially curving embankments, which are the scenes of a large proportion of the worst railway disasters, might, perhaps, be constructed so that not merely a few inches of earth shall intervene in case of derailment between the ends of the ties and eternity.

Of course, the safety viaducts and safety embankments that I have in mind are very expensive things, and perhaps their cost would in most cases be at present well-nigh prohibitive. Some railways, however, could afford them, just as some can afford to have a quadruple track or to do away with grade crossings. But one thing is certain, and that is that we shall not have these things under any system of rate regulation that reduces the earning capacity of our roads to a level at which they are obliged to confine their reconstruction work within narrow bounds. We may regulate the rates of transportation, but we have no machinery for preventing railways from curtailing their outlay for improvements when their finances are inadequate. We hear sufficient talk already of the decision of railway managers to abstain from undertaking certain badly needed constructive work on the score of a lack of funds. The fact that so many of our great railway lines are still single-track is a crying evil. The innumerable grade crossings produce a slaughter at which we are beginning to stand aghast. Yet we shall continue to put up with such things so long as we persist in compelling railway companies to operate at rates too low to yield a surplus adequate to the imperative needs of repair.

Our legislators have chosen to put cheapness of transport above the assurance of safety to the travelling public, and to our army of railway employees. Are we sure that in the present policy of clipping the wings of the railway companies we are not simply running off the track? We ought to be going straight ahead to bring our railway system up to the needs of traffic and the requirements of safety, and instead we are doing our best to defeat this object.

What has happened to make ocean transportation so safe? Suppose that through some kind of international agreement fares and freight charges had been kept down at a minimum, should we now behold the progress in transportation that has taken place within the last quarter of a century?

L.

Deal Beach, N. J., August 29.

Textbooks

PEDAGOGICS AND ENGLISH.

If we are to enter the educational New Jerusalem, as prophets foretell us, through the portals of the psychological laboratory, the future of experimental psychology is immense. At present, however, the pedagogical-psychological alliance is to be justified rather by its faith than its works. Pending the development of the "science of education," the immediate value of textbooks on that subject is likely to be in inverse ratio to their scientific pretensions. For the publishing educator, eager for results, drives hard at practice; and it is not the experimenter's handful of indigested conclusions that the young teacher should carry into the classroom, but the old teacher's handful of tested and animated platitudes. To preserve, refine, and vivify our inherited wisdom—that is the problem; nor is there any virtue in translating the precious commonplaces of experience into a pseudo-scientific jargon. L. H. Jones, in "Education as Growth" (Ginn), aims at pupils in normal schools and teachers in reading circles. His book, in spite of its "efferent" and "afferent" nerves and "molecular impulses," is as free as could be desired from scientific pretensions. It represents, indeed, a reaction against the vigorous and rigorous materialistic interpretation of the world, positing as the educational object "a spiritual entity whose essence is self-activity." Its hopeless dreariness is due mainly to the solemn and abstract delivery of the truisms of which it is composed. Thus when a man of this world would say, "If you study a thing hard, you may master it," our author, catering for the sophisticated palate of the normal school, decorates as follows: "A definitely guided process of self-activity in thinking upon a definitely selected object of thought or theme may lead the self-activity from a state of ignorance in reference to such object into a state of intelligence in regard to the same."

The first merit of W. C. Bagley's "Craftsmanship in Teaching" (Macmillan) is that it avoids this phraseological inanity. Constituted of a dozen essays and addresses on specific and timely topics, it is written simply and vigorously, and is informed with common sense and enthusiasm. Its most stimulating chapter—which gives the title to the book—is a thoroughly admirable plea for the development in teachers of the "artistic conscience" and pride in the technique of their profession. Professor Bagley feels an orthodox faith in the possibilities of psychological investigation, leading to scientific method and organization, but he constantly recognizes and seeks to quicken the rather incalculable elements of moral responsibility and personal inspiration in the methodizers and organizers. In a second work, on "Educational Values" (Macmillan), he undertakes the more ambitious task of classifying educative forces ("conduct-controls"), in psychological terms, evaluating these forces, and outlining the methods for the

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efficient use of educative materials. His categories ("rubrics") are from the nature of things arbitrary, his values infinitely disputable, his methods, as he informs us, are to be expanded in a subsequent volume. When he assures us that the relative worth of translations and originals of the classics is a problem "far from insoluble by the methods that experimental education even now possesses," he provokes a wide elevation of eyebrows; we are incredulous, but open to conviction. It is the saving grace of Professor Bagley that, though he is credulous, he too is open to conviction. If his book is not rich in conclusions, it at least organizes questions with a somewhat unusual definiteness and a sense for the pressing concrete problem, utilizing the light available from recent experimentation.

All who know the excellence of Prof. George R. Noyes's edition of Dryden's poetical works have looked forward with confidence to his "Selected Dramas of John Dryden" (Scott, Foresman & Co.), which proves indeed clearly superior to any other selection of Dryden's plays. Though it contains but four of them—"The Conquest of Granada" (both parts), "Marriage à la Mode," "All For Love," and "The Spanish Friar"—these adequately represent their author's varied achievement in heroic drama; comedy of manners, tragedy, and tragi-comedy. The accompanying essays, "Of Heroic Plays," "Defense of the Epilogue," and the preface to "All For Love," are among the most important of his critical utterances. Of the notes, which are scholarly, pertinent, and succinct, many are judiciously chosen from little-known Restoration writers and from the best critics of later times. The entire text has been more carefully collated than by any previous editor; in fact, in only one trivial case (in the notes, p. 455, "Barroy" for "Chedreux") has a trial of the work revealed the slightest inaccuracy. As the best contemporaneous criticism of the heroic play, "The Rehearsal" has been included in the volume. Since this is obtainable in two good inexpensive editions, by Arber and by Lindner, one may judge it here unnecessary; but largely because its exclusion might have given us another play of Dryden so competently edited by Professor Noyes. The introduction is so modest in tone that its worth is apt to pass unrecognized. Heretofore the readily accessible criticism of Dryden's plays has been rather untrustworthy, and the reliable has been buried, amid much error, in philological publications. Professor Noyes has painstakingly studied these modern discussions about Dryden, has pruned away what was false or futile, and has so well pondered the rest as to create an essay of true value.

Not only is the making of textbooks one of the recognized industries of the time, but so far has the differentiation of labor gone already—when it is no uncommon sight to see anywhere from two to five writers collaborating in the production of an English composition—that the business bids fair to become in a little while a matter of guilds and corporations exclusively. Perhaps one of the best texts of the season on the popular subject of public speaking is a work of this kind, "Argumentation and Debate" (American Book Company), the joint product of J. V. Denney, C. S. Duncan, and F. C. McKinney. The volume makes something of a departure from the usual routine by its reliance on the principles of legal evidence as a source of illustration and by the amount of space, nearly one-half of the book, which it devotes to material for the practical exercises of analysis and briefing. In this way the statement of theory becomes uncommonly concise—not altogether a disadvantage in comparison with the discursiveness of the general run of textbooks; though in one or two cases, as the introduction to argument, it seems to have led the authors to scamp matters which have difficulty for the student.

An excellent little anthology for use in school or elsewhere is supplied by "Characteristic Passages from the Hundred Best English Prose Writers" (Crowell), by A. L. Gowans. The book is a small one and the "passages" are, if anything, rather curt; but the range of selection is wide—from Malory to Stevenson—and the choice is admirable. Indeed, it would be hard to imagine a more representative exhibition in anything like the space.

According to his introduction, Professor Halleck has spent seven years in preparing his "History of American Literature" (American Book Co.). The result is a volume which seems to possess all the features which have made its author's "History of English Literature," such a popular and successful textbook. Its estimates and criticisms show the same immediate contact with the subject and the same knack of treatment and presentation. There are general reviews and parallel surveys of English literature for each period; and there are references for literary and historical study. At the close there is also an appreciation of the significance of American letters, together with a supplementary reading list.

LATIN AND GREEK.

Those who believe in the value of Greek and Latin in education will gain much comfort from a series of essays entitled "Latin and Greek in American Education" (Macmillan), edited by F. W. Kelsey. These papers were presented at the Michigan classical conferences held during the past five years, and have already appeared in the *School Review* and the *Educational Review*. The first three chapters on the Present Position of Latin and Greek, their Value as Educational Instruments, and their Place in the Course of Study, are by Professor Kelsey. Chapter iv, on the Nature of Cultural Studies, is by Professor Wenley. Then follow symposia on the value of the classics in the study of medicine, engineering, law, theology, in practical affairs, in the new education, and from the point of view of formal discipline. Distinguished men from the learned professions, business pursuits, and cultivated circles in general come forward with virtually no dissenting voice to maintain that without the classical training a man is at a disadvantage in all walks of life. In these discussions emphasis is laid first upon the exceptional value of the study of Latin and Greek for training the mind. Formal discipline is somewhat in disesteem at present, and many psychologists look askance at it (wrongly as appears from the last symposium in the book), but it is refreshing to find these men insisting upon this side of training as of prime importance. A few scientists, mainly chemists, demur, but their voice is lost in the larger chorus.

The progress of the new method of teaching Latin in secondary schools is evident in the two most recent elementary textbooks, "Latin for Beginners" (Ginn), by B. L. D'Ooge, and "A Latin Primer" (American Book Co.), by H. C. Nutting. These books are wholly unlike, but they are also unlike any that have preceded them. Mr. D'Ooge is much more conservative than Mr. Nutting; his book is intended to prepare for Cæsar in one year. Accordingly he has limited his vocabulary to six hundred words, mainly Cæsarian, selected on the basis of the word-lists of Lodge and Browne. The syntax too has been limited to the essentials indicated in Byrne's summary of secondary Latin syntax. Latin grammar is treated largely from the English point of view. Connected reading is introduced early, and various devices are employed to keep up the interest. A few exercises in conversation at the outset show how the material of the lessons can be handled in the oral fashion. The general style is clear and simple. There is a slight tendency to talk down to the pupil, but it is not offensive. While superfluous things are excluded, there is no inclination to give an appearance of ease by omitting essentials. The reading matter is unusually full. The illustrations are well chosen. Four plates in color, though somewhat crude, add life to the stories. The printing is excellent, and mistakes are surprisingly few. Mr. Nutting's book is not so large, as it is intended to provide material only for the first year in a five-year curriculum, and does not prepare for Cæsar. Hence the vocabulary contains a large number of words that are rare in the usual secondary Latin curriculum. Oral work is insisted upon from the beginning, and the ordinary life of man is made the basis of the reading lessons. There is evident an intention to show the pupils that Latin is a practical language, and that the Roman children were very like those of to-day. Balls, dolls, baskets, roses, monkeys, dogs, chairs, shoes, are the material of the first lessons. As the period covered is briefer, some things are deferred to a later study. Thus, the syntax of the verb is confined to constructions with *ut* and *cum*, the accusative with the infinitive, and simple indirect discourse. In the latter part of the book the reading matter consists largely of stories connected with early American life, particularly the period of the Indian wars. The impression produced by the book is very pleasing, and it should be popular with those who are not afraid of the novel, if it is good.

Dr. Walter Headlam, at his death in 1908, left unfinished an edition of the "Agamemnon" of Æschylus, on which he had been at work for some years. The introduction and verse translation were nearly complete, but the text had not been thoroughly revised, and the commentary was fragmentary. A. C. Pearson has now supplied these gaps, so far as he could, from various publications of Dr. Headlam in philosophical periodicals, and from such manuscript notes and marginalia as were available, and the result is a valuable edition (Cambridge University Press; Putnam). The introduction gives an account of the adaptation of the old epic story to the dramatic needs of his own day by Æschy-

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lus, and his interpretation of it as a political upheaval due to party faction. While in this interpretation he agrees with Dr. Verrall, he does not accept Dr. Verrall's interpretation of the course of events in the early part of the play, but assumes that an interval of time is supposed to elapse after verse 493 for the return of the Greeks from Troy. There is also an interesting discussion of the moral and religious ideas in the play, in which the editor tries to show that Æschylus's political and social sentiments were those of his own period. The commentary, inadequate and fragmentary though it is, shows how much we have lost in the death of this distinguished scholar. The verse translation is characterized by great dignity and beauty, and will take rank alongside of Dr. Murray's translations from Euripides.

MODERN LANGUAGES.

Laurie's "Mémoires d'un collégien" is to the school life of France what "Cuore" is to that of Italy. If De Amicis's book is the more effective in its lessons of idealism and the more varied in character and incident, Laurie's is the better piece of narrative, and is more complete and coherent in its record of school experiences. The story has been well edited, with notes and vocabulary, by Prof. O. B. Super (Heath), and should prove interesting, in this form, to young American readers.

Prof. C. A. Eggert has edited "les Femmes savantes" for early reading (American Book Co.). The notes are well adapted to initiate the student into the peculiarities of Molière's language and of French verse order, and the vocabulary is unusually rich in its treatment of idiomatic phrases and in its distinctions of meaning. In his introduction, and now and again in the notes, Professor Eggert is at considerable pains to assure us that Molière did not really intend "to throw ridicule on the pursuit of higher studies by ladies"—a contention decidedly less sound than gallant.

"The Poetry of Victor Hugo" (Ginn), a selection of above a hundred poems, edited by Professors Edgar and Squair, is an excellent book. The poems chosen are divided into twelve groups, according to the general character of their content. Nature Poems, for instance, form one group, Napoleon Poems another, and Humanitarian Poems another. Within each group the order is chronological. A few brief notes are given, and at the end of the book appears a long and very necessary glossary of proper names. The introduction contains an analysis of the stylistic development in Hugo's poetry, and a list of his many volumes of published verse. To each of the several groups is prefixed a brief special introduction. The criticism thus presented, if not inspiring, is thoroughly respectable, and affords a good starting point for classroom discussion or independent thought.

Another book which well deserves a place in courses on French literature in the nineteenth century is a collection of eight essays by Edmond Scherer, edited, under the title "Études françaises et anglaises" (Frowde), by Francis Storr. With the passing years Scherer's work is coming to be valued more and more highly. He is admirably qualified to mediate between French literature and the English mind, for he is English in that he is most of all concerned for moral worth, and he is French in the alertness of his understanding and the keenness of his judgments. Mr. Storr's selection of essays is good. Those dealing with George Eliot, Chateaubriand, Thiers, and Sainte-Beuve are particularly notable, both for the criticism of the writers treated and for their expression of Scherer's own views on certain underlying problems of literature and life.

Prof. J. D. M. Ford's "Old Spanish Readings," published some years ago as a pamphlet of selections from critically edited texts, has now appeared in its complete form, with introduction, notes, and vocabulary (Ginn). The introduction consists of a brief treatment of Spanish phonology, excellent alike in the clearness of its exposition and in its typographical arrangement. The notes contain detailed discussions of the many and varied problems connected with the linguistic material or the formation and transmission of the several documents. In the vocabulary are assembled all forms appearing in the texts, with identification or analysis, when requisite, and thorough etymological treatment.

By the omission of some whole chapters, the excision of sundry descriptive passages, and by various other abbreviations, A. Kenngott has reduced by about one-half the bulk of C. F. Meyer's "Jürg Jenatsch," and so made an admirable historical novel available for college classes (Heath). The artistic quality of Meyer's work naturally suffers in consequence of this somewhat violent treatment, and not all the threads of the complicated narrative now seem well knit together. But the student probably will not, and indeed need not, realize what has been sacrificed in order to make his task easier. The text as it stands is good German, and the story told is both interesting and instructive. Mr. Kenngott has supplied all the historical information necessary to an understanding of the text. His grammatical notes seldom go to the root of the matter, and many of the translations which he suggests for difficult passages do scant justice to the elegance of Meyer's style.

American students of Germanics are not likely, when they take up the study of Old High German, to need a textbook of the subject written in English; and, as they have by that time familiarized themselves with German methods of presentation, they will probably be inclined to turn to the new edition of Braune's "Althochdeutsche Grammatik" as the most complete and authoritative work on the subject. The subject, however, is complicated, and, in spite of logical arrangement, Braune's book is often baffling to the beginner, on account of the multiplicity of details. Furthermore, Braune presupposes in his reader wide acquaintance with general Germanic philology. The purpose of Lionel Armitage in his "Introduction to the Study of Old High German" (Clarendon Press) is to build upon the foundation of a good knowledge of the ancient classics, to derive Old High German from primitive Germanic, and to link Germanic in outline to Indo-Germanic. This method partakes of the merits of Victor Henry's method, in his "Comparative Grammar"; and, like Wright's "Gothic Grammar," Armitage's book commends itself at sight, with a certain aspect of simplicity and orderliness. It has a map, a classified list of literary monuments, and many tables, as well as the usual paradigms and discussions of the development of sounds, in which abundant examples illustrate the phenomena. Intended primarily for learners, the book is also well adapted to serve the purposes of reference.

HISTORY AND ECONOMICS.

"A History of the United States for Schools" (Appleton), by Profs. A. C. McLaughlin and C. H. Van Tyne, is, in the main, a creditable performance. Its characteristics are its selection (not always very consistent, be it said) of facts which are significant, rather than merely entertaining, its emphasis upon national rather than local points of view, and its relatively full treatment of Western development. The style, while showing a good many signs of "writing down" to the assumed level of the pupil's mind, is at least clear and readable. In the case of an elementary handbook, however, where there is likely to be a good deal of virtual memorizing of the text, the question of accuracy becomes a crucial one; while the points of view, the estimates of personal character or motive, are likely to leave lasting impressions. In these respects the volume before us is not impeccable. There is the same old picture of Stuyvesant, for example, just as though Mrs. Schuyler Van Rensselaer had not recently shown its defects. The summaries of four of the five coercive acts of 1774 (p. 149, note 2) are either incorrect or misleading. In speaking of the disastrous issues of paper money during the Revolution, there is, as usual, no intimation that the States issued as much of the stuff as did Congress, or that Congress, with all its faults, performed a notable feat in the matter of the "new tenor" bills. Was Jefferson's "hesitation" about Louisiana anything more than *pro forma*, and was he "persuaded to yield" in the approval of the treaty (p. 234)? The references for further reading appended to the several chapters show a curious blend of light and heavy books, and both omissions and inclusions seem not to conform to any principle of selection.

Marion F. Lansing's "Barbarian and Noble" (Ginn) is, apparently, the first of a series of six volumes to be issued under the general title of "Mediæval Builders of the Modern World." The seventeen topics of the present volume, ranging chronologically from Drusus and Alaric to Rollo and Richard the Crusader, are treated as separate stories, and in a style which is, on the whole, successfully simple and attractive. We are not quite clear as to the grade for which the book is intended, since it is obviously too elementary for the high school, and mediæval history is not commonly taught in grammar grades.

"A Short History of Europe" (Dutton), from the fall of the Roman Empire to the fall of the Eastern Empire, by Prof. Charles S. Terry of the University of Aberdeen, presents few of the external characteristics of a school book. It has neither maps nor illustrations, no paragraph or marginal headings, and no references for supplementary reading; no "apparatus," in fact, beyond some genealogical tables. The typographical appearance, too, with its small type and closely set page, is rather forbidding. The work itself is an interesting attempt to bring the story of England into the field of early European history, from which it has often been well-nigh wholly excluded; or, as Professor Terry says, to sketch

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European history in a British perspective. The book is designed for the conditions of English schools, but should not be without value for American teachers also.

Arthur D. Innes's "A General Sketch of Political History from the Earliest Times" (Macmillan) is a painstaking, well-written, and unusually correct epitome, by a practised hand. It calls for but one comment in these columns. Like almost all attempts to condense within the space of a small textbook all that passes current for the history of mankind, it fails to maintain proper proportion. For obvious reasons, the treatment of ancient history, even in standard publications of this kind, is far more satisfactory than that of more recent times. In Mr. Innes's volume the leisurely pace of the first 120 pages which carries the story down to the middle of the fifth century A. D. becomes breathless haste in the thirty pages devoted to the European Powers from 1815 to 1871; in the brief chapter (less than ten pages) given to America, Australasia, Africa, and Asia, during the century ending in 1871; and in the seven pages which suffice for the nations since 1871. Here we have no longer rapid summaries, but vague allusions. Thirteen lines are made to do duty for an account of our civil war, in which not a single battle or a single name (besides that of Lincoln) is mentioned; and twenty lines tell the story of the Russo-Japanese war, which closes the volume.

The "History of Economic Thought" (Macmillan), by Prof. Lewis H. Haney, will fill a long-felt need. There are a number of other works on the general subject, notably Cossa's and Ingram's, but for one reason or another they are not well adapted to class use. The present volume is of suitable compass, and the treatment is such as to make it satisfactory as a textbook. It includes a survey of economic thought from the time of the Greeks, Romans, and Hebrews down to the latest modern writers. In such a vast field it is evident that the author is compelled to exercise a large amount of personal judgment in selection. Since no two writers could possibly agree on the matter, criticism of this aspect of the book is both easy and useless. In the preface, the author acknowledges his large indebtedness to Prof. Richard T. Ely, whose contribution to the work was so great as almost to justify the inclusion of his name as a joint author of the book. The influence of that broad-minded thinker must have had much to do with giving the work its common-sense, teachable character. On the whole, the subject matter seems to be well chosen and well arranged, though the English in which it is expressed is frequently rough and at times obscure. There is little attempt to correlate the development of economic thought with the economic conditions of different periods, though the determining influence of these conditions is not forgotten.

In their "Outlines of Economics, Developed in a Series of Problems" (University of Chicago Press), three members of the department of political economy in the University of Chicago have performed with remarkable thoroughness and grasp a task of great difficulty. The book consists in the main of sets of searching questions, dealing successively with every phase of the great subject, the order being determined by the attempt of the authors "not only to link economic theory with descriptive material, but in a measure to build the theory up out of the familiar events of economic life"; an attempt in which, we believe, they have succeeded as completely as the case admits. But the questions do not stand alone; as a rule, each set is introduced by a concise indication of the central ideas or doctrines involved, the statement in every instance being marked by exemplary clearness and vigor. The authors are careful to state, however, in a prefatory note, that their work is not intended to take the place of a textbook, but rather to parallel some book embodying a systematic presentation of economic theory. Still less, of course, can it enable the instructor to dispense with the furnishing of guidance of the most essential kind; on the contrary, it may be said with emphasis that the use of these questions must subject the teacher to a test far more severe than any it imposes on the student. In the hands of any instructor lacking either in individual force or in mastery of the subject, the experiment would be sure to prove a failure. Indeed, the one doubt that suggests itself concerning the book is as to the possibility of a teacher, however strong, being able to consider with his class these hundreds of questions, when there is often material in a single one of them for many days of difficult and perplexing discussion. But as the book is "the outgrowth of a three years' experiment in elementary economic instruction," we are bound to assume that, with the right teachers, the difficulty is not insuperable; and in any case Professors Marshall, Wright, and Field are to be congratulated on having produced a book that is sure to be stimulating and instructive to teachers of economics, whether they use it directly in their classes or not.

SCIENCE.

Three textbooks of general physics have been received. The "Principles of Physics" (Century), by Professor Magie of Princeton University, is a thoroughly commendable and reliable book. The author has a well-defined purpose, which is to teach physics not only because of its intrinsic interest, but also because it is the best means of presenting to all students the scientific method of thinking. Very rightly, he bases his presentation on the historical development of the subject, as the one likely to proceed from the simple to the difficult. The book, as a result, shows a logical treatment and bears evidence of a most careful verification of material. The style is excellent. The only adverse criticism to be made is that, in basing mechanics on the laws of statics, the writer has overexpanded this subject so that the remainder of the book seems rather compressed. Prof. A. L. Kimball, who has published his "College Physics" (Holt) after considerable delay, presents the science rather from the experimental side and simplifies the mathematical treatment much more than Professor Magie. His text is accurate, and will prove to be a good manual. The discussion is not very different from that of other standard texts. The third one of these books is the "College Physics" (Macmillan), written by Professors Reed and Guthe of the University of Michigan. A sufficient reason for the book is difficult to find, as it is certainly not so good as a number of others now available. There is no evidence of any work in its composition other than a rather hasty expansion of lecture notes, and the style, while it is possibly not bad, is certainly not good. The text is best when phenomena and experiments are described, although the frequent references given to technical articles are useless and pedantic. The mathematical analysis is adequate, but the use of calculus even in a concealed and apologetic form is here quite out of place. It is when the authors give definitions and outlines of physical theories that they show a lamentable weakness. To mention a few examples: "Matter may be defined as that which we can perceive by our sense of touch"; on page 18 the motion of a particle is discussed as if it could have a motion other than linear; in the subject of heat, it is stated that "heat and temperature are two entirely different physical quantities." There is no need of multiplying such illustrations; the book does not attain in any way to the level of the other two. In make-up and in freedom from typographical errors all three are excellent.

The need which has been felt of a good textbook on the development of the applications of electricity in chemical processes is supplied in a most satisfactory way by Prof. M. de Kay Thompson. He has collected "in a single volume the material that would be comprised in a course aiming to give an account of the most important electro-chemical industries, as well as the principal applications of electro-chemistry in the laboratory"—"Applied Electro-Chemistry" (Macmillan).

"A Concise History of Chemistry" (Van Nostrand), by T. P. Hilditch, is an attempt to outline briefly the historical development of chemistry, and assumes that the reader has a fair knowledge of present-day chemical theory and practice. Two features are to be noted in this really worthy effort, namely, the biographical index of chemists with a chronological summary of chemical events of outstanding interest, and the almost complete failure of the author to include American contributions. Willard Gibbs, who originated perhaps the greatest generalization in modern chemistry, the "phase rule," is barely mentioned, and even then is confused with Wolcott Gibbs, who is not credited with the founding of electro-analysis. Acheson's name is lacking in the enumeration of accomplishments in industrial chemistry; yet his artificial graphite has made possible the remarkable development in technological electro-chemistry. Nor do we find Hall's name, although cheap aluminum came about through his absolutely novel process, which is used to produce many million pounds of that metal a year in this country alone. Every recipient of the Faraday medal is enrolled except Richards, one of the world's authorities on the determination of atomic weights. Guthrie is not down as an independent discoverer of chloroform, though he was the real discoverer. The makeup of the book is satisfactory, and some of the tables might be included in a "Universal Almanac."

Prof. Irving W. Fay, the author of "The Chemistry of Coal-Tar Dyes" (Van Nostrand), would have our students and dyers know something of the history, methods of making, chemical constitution, and proper means of applying and detecting the coloring matters of coal tar. Some of the colors simulate, while others are superior to, natural dyes, and still others find no counter-

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part in nature at all. The book "is intended for those students and dyers who have a good knowledge of general chemistry, and some knowledge of organic chemistry." In general it is well done, though proper proportion is not always kept, and the English is frequently involved. Phenolphthalein is not used chiefly as an indicator in quantitative analysis, as stated on page 253; its medicinal value has become well recognized. Chapter xix, dealing with experimental work, is excellent, and so is the index.

Students of human physiology who keep in touch with the European literature of their subject have long and favorably known the textbook, by Luigi Luciani of Rome, in the German or French versions, if not in the original Italian, of which the third edition has recently appeared. For the English reader Frances A. Welby has prepared a smooth translation under the editorial supervision of Dr. M. Camis of Pisa. The first volume with the title "Luciani's Human Physiology" has now been published by Macmillan in the excellent form familiar to readers of their books of this class. The work is to be completed in four volumes, making a rather large and somewhat expensive treatise. This first part contains nearly six hundred pages, and deals with the circulation and respiration, and includes three interesting introductory chapters, and also a considerable chapter on the Lymph. Judged by this volume the work will appeal to the better sort of student, not merely because it presents the conclusions of a skilled investigator and experienced teacher, but also by the fact that the historical development of the various topics is given in considerable detail. The more important authorities are noted at the end of each chapter, and Dr. Camis has added valuable, but by no means complete, lists of reference to the physiological literature in English. Without undertaking an extended review at this time, we note that the text contains no account of the electrical phenomena of the beating heart, which have been studied assiduously for some time, and in the past few years have come to be regarded as probably of great significance, not merely for physiologists, but for the practitioner. In the matter relating to the study of the isolated mammalian heart too little credit is given to Martin (disguised in the text, but not in the index, as both Newell and Martin) for his discovery of the possibility of keeping up a vivifying circulation through the coronary arteries—a discovery which was somewhat obscurely published, and which has been overshadowed by the successful and more extended work of Langendorff. These and some other deficiences are not serious blemishes in a book which well deserves to be read. In a brief introduction Langley commends the treatise, but takes occasion to enter a hearty protest against Luciani's conclusion that the credit of discovering the circulation of the blood belongs to Cesalpinus, rather than to Harvey. This bids fair to reopen the floodgates of controversy.

"The Animals and Man" (Holt), by Dr Vernon L. Kellogg, ambitiously attempts to cover an enormous field—the structure, physiology, behavior, and classification of animals, together with the makeup and physiology of the human body. The author succeeds as well as could be expected, although it is rather bewildering to leap by the turn of a page from public hygiene to ancient man. The text is well divided between statements of fact and questions which tend to develop originality in the pupil. The chapter on Animal Physiology is especially excellent, both in text and illustrations. Unimportant errors are unfortunately frequent, such as giving ten thousand as the total number of species of birds, whereas, twenty thousand would be far nearer the mark; *gallus* is written both as *bankiva* and *bankivus*, etc. But the volume as a whole is a well-balanced textbook, worthy of a place in school courses of a year's length.

Literature

THE YOUNGER PITT.

William Pitt and National Revival. By J. Holland Rose, Litt.D. New York: The Macmillan Co. $6 net.

It is nearly half a century since Stanhope published his monumental life of Pitt. Since then the archives of the Foreign Office, the War Office, the Admiralty, and the Home Office for the period of the Younger Pitt's career have been opened to investigators. Rich bundles of letters to and from Pitt and his friends, especially the Fortescue Papers of the Grenville family, have had a century's dust knocked off and have been published in part by the Historical Manuscripts Commission. Worthy German monographs in microscopic detail have penetrated the mysteries of cabinets and laid bare many of the hitherto unknown secrets of European diplomacy in the decade which saw the end of the American Revolution, the beginning of the French Revolution, and the attempted partition of Turkey. No English writer, perhaps, is better fitted to weld this mass of new material into a readable and scholarly biography of Pitt than the able biographer of Pitt's greatest world rival. Mr. Rose's "Life of Napoleon I" we have always regarded as the best considerable life of the Corsican, and that in spite of the fact that it is coldly critical and at times icily insular. This criticism cannot lie against his life of Pitt, which is written with an admiration and warmth amounting almost to hero-worship.

The Younger Pitt is indeed a subject to inspire enthusiasm and invite worship. Though personally frigid in manner and cool in calculation, he must always by the purity of his patriotism and the magnitude of his achievements warm the heart of every subject of the British Crown. In 1766, at the age of seven, he said to his tutor: "I am glad that I am not the eldest son, but that I can serve my country in the House of Commons like papa." This remark, his first recorded utterance, strikes the keynote of his character, the life-long desire to serve his native land. At the close of 1783, when England was suffering from a constitutional crisis of peculiar intensity and when he himself was not yet twenty-five, this "Wonderful Boy" became Prime Minister of England. Thenceforth, with one short interval, he controlled the destinies of Great Britain through twenty-two years marked by the gravest problems, both political and financial, social and diplomatic, ending in wars of unexampled severity. He guided the threads of English diplomacy in an age of unusual difficulty and complexity. He improved the commercial relations between England and Ireland, strengthened the imperial hold on India, and encouraged the beginnings of an Australian commonwealth. By an energetic assertion of English rights and English honor in the Nootka Sound affair, he preserved British Columbia for England, and prepared the day, had he but known it, when the vivifying forces of science and commerce would endow with a common life the conquests of Clive and of Wolfe and the discoveries of Capt. Cook. Out of a rotten Whiggism he created a vigorous new Toryism. He tactfully saved England from the unsavory set who surrounded the Prince of Wales and steered the ship of state skilfully through the crisis of George III's first bad attack of madness. He laid the solid foundations of good finance in an age when England, like France, had started down the decline toward national bankruptcy. Mr. Rose has a thrilling subject, and he has handled it worthily. His volume tells not merely the life of an individual man; it describes also, as its title indicates, the revival of a nation.

By way of an introduction, Mr. Rose describes conditions in England about 1780. Two great revolutions were then taking place. The speculations of Rousseau, the teachings of the Encyclopædists, and the writings of Adam Smith were preparing the way for a revolution in thought, and subsequently in politics, such as no age had seen. And by the side of the "Contrat Social," the "Wealth of Nations," and the "Declaration of the Rights of Man" must be placed as equally important the spinning-jenny, the power-loom, and the double-acting steam-engine. The year 1814 ought to be remembered, not only for the first abdication of Napoleon, but also for George Stephenson's "No. 1" Killingworth locomotive. Mr. Rose is one of the political historians who insist that "only those can read aright the riddle of the modern sphinx who have ears for both her tones, who hearken not only to the shouts of the leaders and the roar of mobs, but also listen for the multitudinous hum of the workshop, the factory, and the mine." The lot of William Pitt the Younger was cast in the years when these revo-

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lutions in thought and in industry began their mighty work. The active part of his father's life fell within the old order of things. The age of Chatham was far less complex and baffling than that of his son. It is true that, with a prophetic vision of the future, the old man foretold in thrilling words the invincibility of the American cause, but then his life-work was done; from his Pisgah-mount he could only warn, and vainly warn, the dwellers in the plain below. His son was destined to enter that unknown land; and he entered it when his people were burdened by debt, disaster, and disgrace.

To persons who advocate the early intellectual training of children and the development of mental prodigies like young Sidis or Wiener, to name only the most recent, the life of Pitt must be instructive, and, on the whole, encouraging, in spite of the fact that his health was never robust and that he died at the comparatively early age of forty-seven. Mr. Rose has discovered among the Pitt MSS. a letter, written apparently by Pitt at the age of seven, which shows a healthy boyish interest in American Indians, and incidentally a surprising command over Latin for a child of that age. "Mi Charissime Pater," it begins, "Gaudeo audire te rursum bene valere. Vidimus primates Mohecaunnuck et Wappinger, Tribuum Indicorum a septentrioli America, qui veniunt in Angliam supplicare regem ob quosdam agros." Pitt also, like that later prodigy of learning and oratorical power, Macaulay, did not go to one of the public schools like Eton or Rugby. Owing to his delicate health, he was trained by tutors, and by reading with his father, until he went to Cambridge. To this education at home Mr. Rose ascribes in part Pitt's intense hopefulness. "Brought up on the best authors, imbued with the highest principles, and lacking all knowledge of the seamy side of life, he cherished an invincible belief in the triumph of those aims which he felt to be good and true." Such hopefulness is an invaluable human asset. It is the sail-power which helps men forward to success; but it needs to be steadied by the ballast of a familiar acquaintance with the ideas and conduct of the ordinary man. In this ballast Pitt, like Macaulay, was deficient. His lack of knowledge of men, except by hearsay, and his stiffness and reserve in dealing with every one except his few most intimate friends, were undoubted faults due in part to his early private training.

In the volume before us, which brings Pitt's career down to 1791, Mr. Rose appears to have allotted about equal space to three main subjects. The first is Pitt's personality: his precocious boyhood, his college friendships at Cambridge, his visits to Westminster and Goosetree's, his leadership in Parliament, and his frisky mornings with Wilberforce on the edge of Wimbledon Common, after one of which that great and good man recorded in his diary: "We found one morning the fruits of Pitt's earlier rising in the careful sowing of the garden beds with the fragments of a dress-hat in which Dudley Ryder had overnight come down from the opera." Less edifying, it must be admitted, were occasional deep potations with Dundas, one of which rendered the Prime Minister unable to speak intelligently in the House of Commons. Fox generously forebore to take advantage of his rival's incapacity, but the situation was hit off amusingly in the skit on Pitt and Dundas:

> I cannot see the Speaker, Hal, can you?
> What! Cannot see the Speaker, I see two.

The second main subject is Pitt's management of England's internal affairs. Mr. Rose wisely treats this topically rather than chronologically. His chapters on parliamentary reform, financial retrenchment, the Prince of Wales, the regency crisis due to George III's lunacy, the slave-trade, India, Ireland, Australia, and Canada are admirable.

In the third subject, England's foreign affairs, Mr. Rose has made use of much new material and given a good deal of information which was unknown to Lecky and will be new to English readers. This was the decade when Joseph II was recklessly trying to centralize and strengthen his congeries of lands; when Catharine II was ruthlessly designing to seize Constantinople and erect the Balkan Peninsula into a kingdom for the grandson whom she had purposely named Constantine; and when the upheaval in France and the unpredictable events at Paris were perplexing Pitt as to whether he ought to incline toward the Francophile policy of Fox or accept the Francophobe ideas of Burke. The chapters on these topics are valuable, but they do not reach the high level of sprightliness and interest with which the author has written of Pitt's personality and his management of England's internal affairs from 1784 to 1791.

Mr. Rose attempts to vindicate his hero, and on the whole successfully, on many points in which Pitt has often been severely criticised. In the investigation of the charges against Warren Hastings he justifies the Prime Minister's attitude of judicial neutrality on the earlier charges, and reconciles it with his fatal speech on the Cheyt Singh charge, which changed some forty votes in the Commons and led to the impeachment. Fanatical abolitionists have found fault with Pitt for not espousing the abolition of the slave trade as a Cabinet question. Mr. Rose shows that Pitt did give the good cause his heartiest support by his eloquence and influence in Parliament, but that, in view of the hostility of the King, of the Lords, and even of a majority of his own Cabinet, he would have been politically foolish and untrue to his patriotic desire to serve his country, if he had made abolition a Cabinet question and resigned office upon its failure. When he first became Prime Minister, Pitt was repeatedly defeated by votes in the House of Commons, owing to the scandalous coalition of Fox and North against him, but for many weeks he refused either to resign or to dissolve Parliament and appeal to the country. Mr. Rose explains this apparently incorrect and unconstitutional conduct by showing that Pitt knew, as the elections eventually overwhelmingly proved, that he, and not the existing majority in the Commons, enjoyed the confidence of the country. This is why he refused to resign immediately. And he refused to dissolve immediately, partly because the Whig opposition objected to a dissolution, and partly because he shrewdly calculated that, the longer he kept Parliament together and allowed the Fox-North coalition to disgust the voters, the greater would be his own eventual triumph at the polls. The outcome showed his calculation to be correct. Just before the fall of the Bastille, Necker appealed to Pitt to allow English grain to be exported to relieve the scarcity in France. Because of the limited supply in England, Pitt coldly but politely refused to propose to Parliament that Necker's request should be granted. It is possible that, had there been sufficient food in Paris, there might have been no banishment of Necker, no fall of the Bastille, no march of hungry mothers to Versailles. Mr. Rose thinks that Pitt's refusal was legally justifiable, but politically regretable. He pertinently cites the Irish policy of refusing to allow the export of wheat to England when wheat in Ireland sold at more than thirty shillings the barrel; but by a curious mistake, the substitution of "until" for "when," his citation (p. 544) asserts the exact contrary of what he really means.

Mr. Rose promises to complete his life of Pitt in a second volume to be entitled, "William Pitt and the Great War." He also intends in "Pitt and Napoleon Miscellanies" to publish many documents, notes, and other gleanings which he has picked up in the course of his study of these two great men. If the second volume of the biography maintains the high character of the first, we are inclined to believe that Rose's Pitt will rank with Masson's Milton, Trevelyan's Macaulay, Morley's Gladstone, Lockhart's Scott, and the other great biographies of great Englishmen.

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CURRENT FICTION.

Kennedy Square. By F. Hopkinson Smith. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

If it were not for the well-known name on the title-page, this story would be taken for the not very promising work of a novice. The truth is, Mr. Smith is not a novelist, though he has written a number of long stories. His strength has always lain in brief and picturesque sketches of scenes and persons with whom he has come in contact abroad; or with sentimental portraits like "Colonel Carter of Cartersville." When he sets the large canvas before him, and applies himself to the composition of a novel, all of his inspiration and much of his skill desert his finger-tips. His plan is commonplace and his execution crude: he works with a stiff arm. It is a pity and a wonder that a man who can build good lighthouses and paint good water-colors and write good short stories should be unable to compass a really good novel. But one cannot do everything: we suspect that Michelangelo himself would have failed to produce the great American novel.

"Kennedy Square" is a story of the ante-bellum South. The scene is laid in a little inland neighborhood, aristocratic and sufficient unto itself. The central figure is St. George Wilmot Temple, an elegant gentleman of fifty, a bachelor of waning fortunes, but impregnable charm and spirit. He is a member of the bar, but has never practised. His chief merit is in being the best loved man in the community, and his chosen function is to play the fairy godfather to all loving or lovable young couples within his social range. This figure is of the sort Mr. Smith is most successful in portraying—a member of Colonel Carter's guild, of Col. Newcome's—the preposterously chivalrous gentleman of the old school. But one's impression of the character does not grow as the tale goes on. "Uncle George" is the same person on the first and the last of these five hundred pages. The incidents and characters with which he is supposed to be concerned have little reality. We are informed that Harry and Kate are a most charming pair: but we do not believe in them in any capacity. They are merely the leading juveniles in a conventional romantic comedy. It is impossible to believe that this story wrote itself, or that Mr. Smith wrote it without a good deal of tugging at the bootstraps.

The Downfall of the Gods. By Sir Hugh Clifford, K.C.M.G. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

To one desiring to escape from modern times and themes to the ancient and the East may be commended this story of Kambodia and the downfall of Brahman ascendancy. It is not a cheerful tale. The atrocities with which it deals and the long-drawn-out manner of recital create the effect of a thick enveloping cloud of sombreness. Descriptions of Brahman ritual and architecture, of vast forests and great temples, of agonized toil and brutal tyranny, of demigod masters and oppressed "casteless folk," make a dark atmosphere. Nor is relief to be found in the scenes of degrading submission on the part of the young hero to the wiles of the power-thirsty woman of the temple. Yet a series of pictures inspired by serious research into the history of a once mighty civilization possesses of necessity a certain interest and value. Out of gloom, horror, and heaviness an impression is imposed upon the imagination of a great movement in race history; of caste tyranny succeeded by anarchy, and that by subjection to an outside enemy. Perhaps the most vividly surviving recollection of the whole story is the figure of old Slat, the wise man, sitting under the shadow of colossal cone-shaped towers and evolving in secret exultation the formula of the arch.

The Ne'er-Do-Well. By Rex Beach. New York: Harper & Bros.

Mr. Beach has painstakingly sought to avoid serving the general with caviare. He has been so very careful about it that he has given us a rather dry and stale feast. He knows how to tell a story, but he is intensely afraid of being original. So we have the good-hearted young scapegrace, the wealthy and affectionate old father, the *ingénue* heroine, the scheming and passionate adventuress, the brutal and cowardly villain, and the supposedly comic negro boy, all according to the ancient recipe. There are several unnecessarily irritating things about this book. One of these is the violent and long-drawn-out abuse of the government officials of Panama, where Mr. Beach has staged his story. The athletic young Kirk Anthony, who has been drugged and shipped to Colon in the place of a chance-met criminal, performs prodigies of valor at a fire. The Colon fire department is described as composed of cowardly fools. Anthony is arrested for turning the hose on the commandant of police. He is thrown into a filthy lock-up and treated with the most flagrant injustice and abominable cruelty. Nor are the natives of Panama Mr. Beach's only victims. The United States consular service does not escape. It is here represented by one Mr. Weeks, consul at Colon, a drunken, dishonest, and disreputable creature. The work of digging the canal and the course of local politics are directed, according to this narrative, by the whims of an adventuress, who complicates matters by falling in love—quite unaccountably—with Kirk. He resists her advances, and, finally, with his father's blessing, wins a beautiful young bride, a native of Panama, but born of an American mother. Mr. Beach gives us a great deal of jingoistic sentiment, and plenty of cheap sneers at people who do not happen to be white citizens of the United States. It is to be regretted that a story-teller of his ability should lower himself sufficiently to write such a book as this. On the cover, Howard Chandler Christy shows the hero to be about eleven feet tall and to have only one leg.

The Ship of Coral. By H. de Vere Stacpoole. New York: Duffield & Co.

Very different from Mr. Stacpoole's "Patsy" is his newest story, as different as "Treasure Island" is from "Gil Blas." His isle of adventure is located a few hundred miles west of Martinique, and the scenes of the action are divided between the two places. Gaspard Cadillac, having saved his fellow-stoker Yves from the wreck of the Rhone, kills him a few days later in a dispute over a few gold pieces found on the island where the men stranded. He is soon rescued by a vessel commanded by Pierre Sagesse, the "Long John" Silver of the story, and is taken to Martinique, but returns to the island for a larger hoard. The return is marked by sinister incidents, culminating in the marooning of Gaspard on the island, and the destruction of the vessel in a storm. Gaspard gets back to Martinique on another conveniently passing boat, only to find the city buried under the ashes of Mt. Pélée. This would have signified nothing to him if he had not met and loved Marie of Morne Rouge. Mr. Stacpoole, however, is not writing a tragedy, and his reader's gloomier emotions are stirred only long enough to sweeten the pleasing discovery which, along with Gaspard, he finally makes. The story is notable neither in plot nor in style, but it is an agreeable blending of love and adventure in a rather fresh setting.

A BOOK OF ESSAYS.

Learning and Other Essays. By John Jay Chapman. New York: Moffat, Yard & Co. $1.25 net.

The collection of occasional essays ordinarily illustrates the dispersion of the author's thought. Though sufficiently diversified in its topics, this little volume, unusually fine in temper and expression, is coherent in purpose. It illustrates the way in which a man sensitive to the finer issues of life may retain possession of his soul in the presence of modern learning and in the engagement with modern drama, business, politics, and art. Emersonian in its serenity, its individualism, its ethical integrity, it

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refutes the common assertion that New England transcendentalism expired leaving no legitimate issue. Its Emersonianism, however, is transferred from the village to the city, from the hermitage to the forum; it is infinitely subdued, though not baffled, by its more complex environment and its more difficult experience.

It is a curious paradox that the transcendentalists, who of all men fronted the future with most sanguine expectation and spoke most jauntily of the ancients, were, as a matter of fact, among our most enthusiastic and wide-ranging explorers of antiquity. Indeed, a genuine familiarity with the traditions which they hoped to outgrow is one of the marks which distinguish them most sharply from their false disciples. In his admirable essay on "Learning" Mr. Chapman argues that the future of all that we have not and desire depends upon our power to form and sustain a vital connection and intercourse with the past. He who would alter the direction of evolution must be conscious of its previous course; the significant works of art and scholarship, even the great works of character, are blossoms put forth by an ancient stalk. "Many tongues, many hands, many minds, a traditional state of feeling, traditional symbols—the whole passed through the eyes and soul of a single man—such is art, such is human expression in all its million-sided variety." It follows, then, that for him "all teaching is merely a way of acquainting the learner with the body of existing tradition," and that doing away with the classics means doing away with education:

> For the classics are education. We cannot draw a line and say, "Here we start." The facts are the other way. We started long ago, and our very life depends upon keeping alive all that we have thought and felt during our history. If the continuity is taken from us, we shall relapse.

Both in this and in the following essay on "Professorial Ethics" Mr. Chapman analyzes with acumen some of the more dangerous tendencies in current education. Among the chief perils of the hour he emphasizes the bent in our universities toward rigorous business organization, undue exaltation of administrative offices, the elevation in the academic world of ideas of success borrowed from the market, and a blind faith in educational machinery. In the last generation, he declares, the colleges have been "manned and commissioned for a certain kind of service, as you might man a fishing-smack to catch herring." "Professorial Ethics" is anent those who, like Jonah, have been summarily tumbled overboard for objecting to the course:

> The colleges have simply not been different from the rest of American life. Let a man express an opinion at a party caucus, or at a railroad directors' meeting, or at a college faculty meeting, and he will find that he is speaking against a predetermined force. What shall we do with such a fellow? Well, if he is old and distinguished, you may suffer him to have his say, and then override him. But if he is young, energetic, and likely to give more trouble, you must eject him with as little fuss as the circumstances will permit.

Possibly Mr. Chapman and other critics underrate the necessity of organization in our immense educational enterprises. Yet, however indispensable executive talent may be to the general efficiency of our universities, Mr. Chapman's protest against the domination and subordination of the scholar by the business man needs at present to be uttered emphatically and repeatedly. For great scholars are not made by machinery, but by men and in spite of machinery. And the minority which our rigorous organization tends to crush, the independents, the incorrigible individualists, whether learners or teachers, are often, here as elsewhere, the saving remnant, the hope of the world.

Mr. Chapman himself, if we are not mistaken, belongs to the saving remnant. Beneath the thoughtful urbanity of his style, touched with irony and subdued humor, there vibrates that sheer moral idealism which clears the brain and animates the heart like a gust of fresh air in a close room. His address on "The Unity of Human Nature" was delivered before the graduating class at Hobart College. We wish that more graduating classes could hear a message like his. Most commencement orators tell young men how to succeed in life—or attempt to do so. Mr. Chapman tells them how to fail:

> Try to raise a voice that shall be heard from here to Albany and watch what it is that comes forward to shut off the sound. It is not a German sergeant, nor a Russian officer of the precinct. It is a note from a friend of your father's offering you a place in his office. This is your warning from the secret police. Why, if any of you young gentlemen have a mind to make himself heard a mile off, you must make a bonfire of your reputations and a close enemy of most men who wish you well.

We have heard that note struck by a white-haired, unbent, stately, old professor of moral philosophy in one of the New England colleges—one of the last of the transcendentalists. When he spoke his face lost all its customary mild benignity, and grew hard, grim, and lonely like a crag in a high mountain, and his eyes seemed to be fixed upon something far away that none of us had seen. He told us that, if we would live true to our clearest vision, we must not hope for the world's success; that in the significant crises of our lives, in every moment of deepest trial, whether triumphant or tragic in issue, we must stand utterly alone; yet not alone, because upheld by the hands of men before us who had embraced disaster like a bride, sustained by faith in her ultimate issue. What the old man said seemed to cut like a sword through the knot of contemporary moral and political compromise. While he was speaking he seemed to lift us without stooping toward his own level, and to steel our hearts with something of his own heroic and inspiring inflexibility. And when we left his presence, we felt that he had given us a lamp trimmed and burning to guide us through the night of experience. He conducted no doctor's dissertations that we remember, but he showed us the face of truth and the austerest beauty of character.

Such was the choicest gift of the old colleges. To a man of perhaps somewhat similar temper, Dr. Coit of St. Paul's School, in Concord, New Hampshire, Mr. Chapman pays tribute in his remarkably subtle and interesting essay on "The Influence of Schools":

> Dr. Coit was a tall man in a long black coat; and, as he moved and walked about the paths and corridors, he remained always within an invisible tower of isolation, so that you could not be sure that his feet rested on quite the same ground as your own. . . . He lived within that solitude which a great purpose and constant prayer sometimes cast about a man. There was a chasm between him and the rest of mankind which could not be bridged by trivial intercourse. Neither he nor the rest of mankind were at fault for the difference in tension between them. He was so charged with moral passion that many people could not receive the delivery of it.

Such men as these cannot work in the machinery of our modern universities. Such men are not bred by our modern education. Yet Mr. Chapman feels, as every one must who has undergone their influence, that with their disappearance and the decay of the institutions which they created, we shall lose a force in our social and national life that is of quite inestimable value.

John Redmond: The Man and the Demand. By L. G. Redmond-Howard. With 9 illustrations. New York: John Lane Co. $3.50 net.

Before John Redmond was a Nationalist member of the House of Commons, he was on the staff of the House, and in the office that has charge of issuing the orders of the day. When it was suggested in 1881 that Mr. Redmond should be nominated as a Nationalist candidate for New Ross, Timothy Healy described him to Parnell as "Young Redmond, who hands us out the programmes." Since then, and especially since 1900, when Mr. Redmond became leader of the reunited Nationalists, his power to order programmes at Westminster, to determine what business should be taken, has been enormous.

To-day, with party conditions as they have existed since the general election of January, 1910—that is, with the Lib-

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eral Government absolutely dependent upon the Nationalists and the Labor group in the House of Commons—Mr. Redmond's position as Parliamentary leader is as great as that of either Mr. Asquith or Mr. Balfour; and perhaps greater than Mr. Balfour's position. For while Mr. Balfour can only appeal or protest, Mr. Redmond can command. It is not unnatural that there should be a biography of him. Lord Rosebery, Mr. Asquith, Mr. Chamberlain, and Mr. Lloyd George have all had to submit to the publication of their lives.

None of these statesmen, however, has been so fortunate in his biographer as Mr. Redmond; for Mr. Redmond-Howard, who is a nephew of the Nationalist, lived for years in the Redmond household. He states in the preface that his book has been written independently of his uncle. There can be little in print—in the reviews and magazines, as well as in the Hansards, and the English and Irish newspapers—concerning the Nationalist leader that Mr. Redmond-Howard has not drawn upon.

All this material is handled in the book with much care and discrimination. It never overloads the story of Mr. Redmond's political career; and, moreover, for Irish political biography, it is singularly free from flamboyant eulogy. It carries the story of the Nationalist movement from the downfall of Parnell in 1890 to the general election of December, 1910—the second election due to the rejection of the Budget by the House of Lords in 1909; and is the only book in which the varying fortunes of the Home Rule movement can be followed in detail during these eventful twenty years. With the enactment of the Lords' Veto bill assured, the Irish Nationalist movement is now within reasonable distance of realization—a condition that gives more than ordinary value to a study of the policies and methods of the man who apparently will be the last of the Nationalist leaders at Westminster.

The Republican Tradition in Europe. By H. A. L. Fisher. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50 net.

This is a brilliant, if not a profound, book. It sparkles with clever phrases, and brings together the results of a keen intellect reacting upon a very wide reading. It is dedicated to President Lowell and is substantially identical with the lectures as they were delivered at the Lowell Institute in 1910.

In a broad and sure sweep, popular in form but scholarly in content, Mr. Fisher traces the course of republican thought and action from the downfall of the Roman Empire to the foundation of the Republic of Portugal. He passes in review the mediæval theory of government, the Italian city-states, the rise of the Dutch Republic, and the Cromwellian Commonwealth. He gives his largest attention to the French Revolution, following closely the master of those who know, M. Aulard. He rightly points out the fact that there is an underlying incompatibility between Rousseau's revolutionary doctrine of the perfectibility of man through human agencies and the Roman Catholic dogma that man is born in original sin and that only through the practices of his religion can he succeed in wiping away some part of the evil which is inherent in human nature. The gulf which was opened between Republicanism and Catholicism by the confiscation of the lands of the church and the Civil Constitution of the Clergy has been widened by the bitterness of ultramontane journals, the Syllabus of 1864, the Infallibility Dogma of 1870, and the anti-modernist movement of to-day. The incompatibility is absolute, the gulf abysmal, the war truceless. The old school of Gallicans, like the later school of Liberal Catholics, has been killed out. Interesting also are the pages in which Mr. Fisher deals with the less familiar Spanish experiment with a federal republic in 1873, and the wave of republican feeling in England in the early seventies, when Bradlaugh thought that the English people would not tolerate a successor to Queen Victoria and Richard Carlile hoped to see the day when an English Senate would disown the divinity of the Christian religion.

Mr. Fisher thinks that republicanism has made no substantial progress since 1870. This is due, he holds, to several causes. The personal character of excellent monarchs, such as Victoria, Edward VII, and William I, has won a greater respect and love for kingship than was possible with most of the degenerate Bourbons and Hapsburgs of an earlier age. It is also true that remote persons are difficult to know, and, being difficult to know, are difficult to like. But modern science tends to make the monarch the friendly familiar of every one of his millions of subjects. The art of photography catches him at chance moments, as he steps from a train, walks after partridges, chats with a friend, or pats a dog. The cinematograph exhibits him as a spectacle in motion to crowds who have never beheld him in flesh and blood. Electricity diffuses his messages of congratulation and condolence; steam carries him from one end of the empire to the other. Thus the image of the sovereign and his circle is continually stamped into the brain-stuff of the country; the peasant in the little thatched village carries about with him in his daily task the image of the King and Queen, as beings both splendid and familiar, whose doings in the great capital or elsewhere it is always pleasant to know and to discuss. A more fundamental cause is the growing recognition of the fact that the precise form assumed by the executive is no scientific measure of political or civil liberty. People are beginning to understand that monarchical England is more democratic than republican America in the sense that the will of the people is more swiftly translated into acts under the English system of government than under our own. The cost of kings also is relatively far less to-day than a century ago. A nation which spends tens of millions on Dreadnoughts and old-age pensions can afford to pay its hard-working king a salary exceeded by the income of not a few among its more prosperous merchants and manufacturers. Finally, the two other factors which have given monarchy a stronger hold to-day than fifty years ago are the success which has attended the monarchies which Bismarck and Cavour helped to found, and the growth of world empires; a monarchy, with an unchanging ritual and an hereditary dynasty which are touchstones for sentiment and loyalty, is a more potent means of holding together a great scattered empire than any kind of shifting presidency or constitutional abstraction.

Classical Rome. By H. Stuart Jones. With illustrations and maps. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.35 net.

This book is issued in the series of Grant Allen's Historical Guides. It aims to be a sufficient and trustworthy guide for the student of the pagan antiquities of Rome, both out of doors and in the museums. Few men could be so well equipped for the task of its composition as the author, who was the head for a time of the British Archæological School in Rome, and is well known for his special studies in a very important part of the field covered by this book. The book appears to be without doubt the best general manual of its kind. It is also not over the heads of ordinary intelligent travellers who desire something more than their Baedeker; and its chapters on the museums (and on the out-of-door sculptures) may well serve for home-review or for preliminary self-instruction with the help of photographs.

The only misprints noticed by the reviewer that might be misleading are "marked" for "masked" (p. 46), "Dionysius" for "Dionysus" (p. 127), and one or two dates. The monuments under the "black stone" in the Forum (p. 53) were disinterred in 1899, not in 1901, and we imagine that the stretch of the wall of Aurelian, the collapse of which is noted on p. 360, fell some years later than 1893. With regard to the immense mass of detail in a book like this, much room for disagreement must be left to scholars. Generally speaking, however, Mr. Jones is thoroughly well up on the literature of his

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subject and well balanced in judgment and presentation. We permit ourselves only one or two minor comments. There is some doubt about the question whether there ever was a saddle connecting Quirinal and Capitoline (pp. 5, 155, and 157). If there was in Republican times a roadway through to the campus at a lower level than that of Trajan's Forum, what evidence is there that a continuous saddle, however low, ever joined the two hills? On p. 28, we are told that "marble quarries were not worked in Italy until late Republican times, so that the Etruscans, when they did not employ volcanic stone or terra-cotta, were forced [*sic*] to use bronze." Why "forced"? The glittering cliffs of Carrara were in their own country. Could they not have learned as easily from Greece to quarry marble as to cast bronze? On p. 49, it should have been noted that the stunted brick piers erected in the early seventies of the last century on the floor of the Basilica Julia do not accurately indicate the ground-plan of the building (cf. Huelson). The Ministry of Finance certainly does not mark the Viminal hill, but the Quirinal (cf. p. 197, where the building is correctly located as partly on the site of the Colline gate, though there are other inaccuracies in the statement). The plan of the Senate-house in the map on p. 43 disagrees unnecessarily with that in the map opposite p. 153; and the latter plan could hardly be defended. We had supposed that before the building of the railways travellers "from the north" (p. xi) usually entered Rome by the Porta del Popolo, and only those coming over from Cività Vecchia came in by the Porta S. Pancrazio.

Surely it is indefensible for the publishers to omit the date of issue from the imprint in a book of this sort—or of any sort, for that matter.

Syntax of Early Latin. Vol. I: The Verb. By Charles E. Bennett. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.

In 1853 F. W. Holtze put forth a modest specimen of a proposed syntax of early Latin. The completed work, "Syntaxis priscorum scriptorum Latinorum usque ad Terentium," in two volumes, was published in 1861-2. Although he had almost no critical texts, and almost no special treatises on particular topics, this work was of enormous importance, and has been a storehouse of information since its publication. In 1874-8 A. Draeger published his "Historische Syntax der Lateinischen Sprache," which, much enlarged in the second edition (1878-81), has been for the whole Latin language what Holtze was for the early period. In the interval between these two works wonderful progress had been made in textual criticism, and numerous studies of the style of different authors had appeared. Since 1881 almost every conceivable topic of syntax has been treated exhaustively by scholar and doctor, and there has long been a crying need for some comprehensive treatment of Latin syntax in its historical development. The "Historische Grammatik der Lateinischen Sprache," in course of publication by a group of German scholars, is to include, of course, a full study of the syntax. But there has thus far appeared only a treatment of the tenses, moods, and voices by Blase (1903), and the nominative and accusative cases by the late C. F. W. Mueller (1908). Meanwhile, Holtze's work has become less and less usable, and the need for a special discussion of the earlier field has been imperative. This need Professor Bennett has endeavored to meet in the present work. The first volume of 500 pages is devoted to the verb, the remaining subjects being reserved for a second volume.

After an introductory chapter on Agreement, Voices, Impersonal Verbs, and Omission of Verb, we find eight chapters as follows: Tenses of Indicative in Principal Clauses; Indicative in Subordinate Clauses; Subjunctive in Principal Clauses; Subjunctive in Subordinate Clauses; Imperative; Infinitive; Participles, Gerund, and Supine; The Sentence Question. This arrangement has certain obvious advantages, for it enables the author to treat model usages on the basis of some assumed fundamental meaning or meanings. It has the very serious disadvantage of separating different elements of the same logical category; thus, temporal, causal, conditional clauses, and indirect questions are divided in treatment between the indicative and subjunctive. Nor is there anywhere any attempt to group together these usages, so as to make clear the encroachment of the subjunctive upon the indicative, which is discernible even in the early period.

The natural plan to pursue in arranging categories would be to adopt some general scheme of linguistic origin and growth, and then cite the examples under the various headings. Mr. Bennett is never satisfied to do this. He prefers to summarize and discuss all the theories that have been advanced on every subject, and then to state and defend his own position. The book thus becomes in reality a treatise on theoretical syntax with illustrations from early Latin. The most striking example of this practice is the introductory discussion of the fundamental meanings of the subjunctive mood, which covers seventeen pages, beginning with the Greek and Latin conceptions of mood and coming down to the most recent pronunciamento. Virtually nothing of this discussion is in place in a book of this kind, which should register the phenomena of the period, and Mr. Bennett's own views, which are given in two pages at the end, are all that is needful. Those teachers, however, who are interested in syntactical theory, but have no access to the large literature cited, may feel grateful for these summaries. In treating the historical present, Mr. Bennett follows the arrangement and material of Emery's dissertation; but also consumes two pages with a criticism of Emery's contention that the use of the historical present rests primarily upon the idea of duration in certain verbs. Whether this is true or false, it has nothing to do with the facts of early Latin usage.

The passion for subdivision and multiplication of minute categories, which is so characteristic of the Hale school of syntacticians, is very much in evidence here. Thus the future indicative shows eight volitive uses, with six additional subdivisions, while the present indicative in conditional protases comprises the astounding number of above seventy varieties. This certainly is minuteness run mad. Even where the categories are less numerous, they are often too many. Thus Merc 915, *paullisper mane! —Quid, manebo?* is classified as "an inquiry after a command or advice," while Men 197, *salta sic cum palla postea!—Ego saltabo?* is a "repudiating question." But this difference, though correct, does not constitute a difference in origin or justify a separation of categories.

Not every one will agree always with Mr. Bennett's interpretation of individual passages. His mind is more rational than sympathetic, and he seems often to miss the actual meaning through lack of feeling. Sometimes actually wrong categories result. Thus, he finds only one case of *cum* in the sense of "while" (during), Ba 1122, *pastor dormit, cum eunt palitantes.* But he should know that *cum* can never be the same as *dum* (while). In the passage quoted it is plainly adversative, "whereas."

In discussing the imperfect indicative, Mr. Bennett follows Wheeler in assuming aoristic force for certain imperfects in early Latin. But while Wheeler is inclined to restrict this force to verbs of saying, especially *aibam*, etc., Mr. Bennett includes *eram* and its compounds, *oportebat* (Men 195, Heaut 536), and a few sporadic instances of other verbs. But here he is unquestionably astray. In his typical sentence, Am 429, *cadus erat vini, inde implevi hirneam*, he sees no difference in effect between *erat* and *implevi*. But if *erat* is aoristic, *fuit* could be substituted for it. We doubt whether Mr. Bennett would dare to do so.

In the preface Mr. Bennett says that "examples without figures unless accompanied by '*e. g.*,' are intended to represent the complete material." This statement is not borne out by the facts. In a number of places the material as

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thus indicated is not complete. Thus he gives four examples from Plautus of *ecquis*, with the subjunctive in the indirect question. There are actually ten.

When all is said in criticism, however, the book represents an enormous amount of labor, and will stand as one of the most important products of American classical scholarship, and add much to our prestige in foreign circles.

Notes

Among the miscellaneous books announced for publication this autumn by the University of Chicago Press are found: "The Historicity of Jesus," by Shirley J. Case; "American Poems," selected and edited by Walter C. Bronson; "Assyrian and Babylonian Letters Belonging to the Kouyunjik Collections of the British Museum," edited by Robert Francis Harper, Vols. X and XI; "Statistical Studies in Education," by Walter F. Dearborn, and "Sociological Study of the Bible," by Louis Wallis.

The Swanston edition of Stevenson, which will be issued by Chatto & Windus first in a limited set, will contain a long preface by Andrew Lang.

The autumn list of announcements made by the Scribners includes: "A Window in Thrums," by J. M. Barrie, illustrated in full color by A. C. Michael; Stevenson's "Treasure Island," with sixteen full-page illustrations, by N. C. Wyeth; "Little Lord Fauntleroy," illustrated by Reginald Birch; "Spanish Sketches," by Edward Penfield, with the author's illustrations; "Cupid's Fair-Weather Booke," by Oliver Herford and John Cecil Clay; "Memories of Two Wars," by Brig.-Gen. Frederick Funston; "The Wilderness of the Upper Yukon," by Charles Sheldon; "Recollections, Grave and Gay," by Mrs. Burton Harrison; "Robert E. Lee: Man and Soldier," by Thomas Nelson Page; "The Great Duke," by W. H. Fitchett, two vols.; "The Arctic Prairies," by Ernest Thompson Seton; "The Relations of the United States and Spain—The Spanish-American War," by Rear-Admiral F. E. Chadwick; "Narratives of Early Pennsylvania, Delaware, and West Jersey, 1630-1708," edited by Dr. A. C. Myers; "The Common People of Ancient Rome," by Prof. Frank Frost Abbott; "Old Provence," in two vols., illustrated; "A New Dooley Book"; "Football," by Parke H. Davis; "Criminal Responsibility and Social Restraint," by Ray Madding McConnell; "Referendum in America," by Ellis Paxson Oberholtzer, new edition; "The Life of Robert Louis Stevenson," by Graham Balfour, new edition; "The Poems of Henry van Dyke"; "The Early Literary Career of Robert Browning," by Prof. T. R. Lounsbury; "The Sad Shepherd," by Henry van Dyke; "Robert Louis Stevenson," by Isobel Strong, Stevenson's step-daughter; "The Courage of the Commonplace," by Mary R. S. Andrews; "The Song of Renny," by Maurice Hewlett; "The Witness for the Defence," by A. E. W. Mason; "Ethan Frome," by Edith Wharton; "The Moon Lady," by Helen Huntington; "The Outcry," by Henry James; "Mr. Wycherly's Wards," by L. Allen Harker; "Son," by Ethel Train; "The Confessions of Artemas Quibble of the New York Bar," revised and edited by Arthur Train; "The Ship's Company," by W. W. Jacobs; "Interventions," by Georgia W. Pangborn; "The Centenary Edition of Charles Dickens's Works," thirty-six vols., published in conjunction with Chapman & Hall; "Boat-Building and Boating," by Daniel C. Beard; "Neo-Platonism and Christianity," by the Rev. F. W. Bussell; "The Makers and Teachers of Judaism," by Prof. Charles Foster Kent; "Periodical Articles on Religion, 1890-1899," compiled by E. E. Richardson; "Introduction to the Life of Christ," by Prof. William Bancroft Hill, and "One Hundred Bible Stories," by Robert Bird.

"Warning Out," a book by Josiah Henry Benton, which is in preparation by the W. B. Clarke Co. of Boston, reverts in its setting to the days when the power of constables in New England towns was supreme.

Longmans, Green & Co. will have ready shortly the following miscellaneous books: "Castles and Country Seats of Present-Day Italy," by Mrs. Francis Batcheller; "Garibaldi and the Making of Italy," by George Macaulay Trevelyan; "The Life of Spencer Compton, Eighth Duke of Devonshire," two volumes, by Bernard Holland; "The Position of Women in Indian Life," by her Highness, the Maharani of Baroda, and S. M. Mitra; "An Eirenic Itinerary," by Silas McBee; "Reminiscences," by James B. Angell; "The Mahatma and the Hare," a dream story, by H. Rider Haggard; "Chess Tales and Chess Miscellanies," by Willard Fiske; "Butterfly Hunting in Many Lands," by G. B. Longstaff; "Alexander Viets Griswold Allen, 1841—1908," by Charles Lewis Slattery; "The Credibility of the Gospel," by Pierre Batiffol, translated by the Rev. G. C. H. Pollen; "William James," by Emile Boutroux, member of the Institute, authorized translation by Archibald Henderson; "Salvador of the Twentieth Century," by Percy F. Martin, and "The Life of a Tiger," by S. Eardley-Wilmot.

Fifteen essays and addresses, delivered before more or less popular audiences by William James during the last years of his life, have been collected, under the title, "Memories and Studies," and are to be issued by Longmans, Green & Co.

It is a matter of congratulation that the new Oxford text of Cicero's "Orations" has now been completed. The last two volumes which have recently appeared (Clarendon Press) contain the six speeches for Tullius, Fonteius, Sulla, Archias, Plancius, and Scaurus, by A. C. Clark, and the speeches concerning his recall and the restoration of his property, for Sestius and Balbus, against Vatinius and in behalf of Cæsar's demand for a longer term in Gaul, by Principal W. Peterson of McGill. The same principles have been followed in these volumes that have made the preceding volumes models of textual criticism and have associated Mr. Clark's name indissolubly with Cicero's speeches. New manuscript discoveries, great critical judgment, and extreme care have been displayed throughout the edition. Mr. Peterson is a worthy associate in the work. The new Cicero now lacks only the philosophical works.

"The Blood of the Arena," by Blasco Vincente Ibáñez, the Spanish novelist, will be published this autumn in an English translation. A. C. McClurg & Co., who have the work in hand, announce also "Something Else," a romance of modern New York, by J. Breckenridge Ellis; "Robert Louis Stevenson in California," by Katharine D. Osbourne, and "Fifty Years of Public Service," by Shelby M. Cullom.

On September 15 Houghton Mifflin Co. will issue: "Mother Carey's Chickens," by Kate Douglas Wiggin; "The Jester of St. Timothy's," by Arthur Stanwood Pier; "The Indian Book," by William J. Hopkins; "Dramatis Personæ," by Robert Browning, with ten full-page illustrations in color by E. F. Brickdale; "Why We May Believe in Life After Death," by Charles E. Jefferson; "Bird Stories from Burroughs," by John Burroughs; "The Scarlet Letter," and "The Marble Faun," by Nathaniel Hawthorne, new holiday edition; "Some Family Letters of W. M. Thackeray," Riverside Press edition; "The Riverside Third Reader," edited by James H. Van Sickle, Wilhelmina Seegmiller, and Francis Jenkins; "Old World Heroes," by Eva March Tappan; "A Dickens Reader," edited by Ella M. Powers; "Cooper's The Spy," with an introduction and notes by Charles Swain Thomas; "The Story of a Bad Boy," by Thomas Bailey Aldrich, with a biographical sketch, and "Polly Oliver's Problem," by Kate Douglas Wiggin, with an introductory sketch.

Doubleday, Page & Co. have a long list of titles for autumn publication. It includes in fiction: "Sixes and Sevens," a posthumous volume of O. Henry's stories; "The Boss of Wind River," by A. M. Chisholm; "Adventures of Bobby Orde," by Stewart Edward White; "Abe & Mawruss," by Montague Glass; "The Taming of John Blunt," by Alfred Ollivant; "An Enemy to Society," by George Bronson Howard; "The Transformation of Krag," by Eugene P. Lyle, jr.; "The Case of Richard Meynell," by Mrs. Humphry Ward; "Margery," by E. F. Benson; "Cicely," by Sara Beaumont Kennedy; "Further Adventures of Nils," by Selma Lagerlof; "The Adventures of a Suburbanite," by Ellis Parker Butler; "A Venture in Identity," by Lucile C. Houghton; a booklet containing "The Gift of the Wise Men," O. Henry's Christmas story; "Joey the Dreamer," by Henry Oyen; "Strawberry Acres," by Grace S. Richmond; "The Composer," by A. & E. Castle, and "The Boy Who Brought Christmas," by Alice Morgan. In biography and history their list includes: "The Life and Letters of Moses Coit Tyler"; "The Life of Andrew Jackson," by John Spencer Bassett; "Reminiscences of Basil W. Duke"; and "The History of England," by Kipling and Fletcher. Miscellaneous: "The Passing of the Idle Rich," by Frederick Townsend Martin; "The Call of the Carpenter," by Bouck White; "We and Our Children," by Woods Hutchinson; "My Larger Education," by Booker T. Washington; "The Richer Life," by Walter A. Dyer; "The Forester's Manual," and "Manual of Signs and Sign Language," by Ernest Thompson Seton; "Wild Animals Every Child Should Know," by Julia E. Rogers; "Shakespeare a Child Can Read and Act," by Ben Greet; "The Magic of Dress," by Grace Margaret Gould,

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and "Many Celebrities and a Few Others," by William H. Rideing.

"A Likely Story" has been finally decided upon as the title of De Morgan's new novel which has been announced by Holt as "Bianca."

"Land of Play," a collection of old favorites in verse and prose, selected by Sara Tawney Lefferts, is in the press of Cupples and Leon Co.

The progress of the admirable Centenary Edition of Dickens (Scribner) is marked by the appearance of two volumes containing the "Christmas Stories."

"A Study in Southern Poetry" (Neale), by H. J. Stockard, is in reality an anthology—and not, as the name might seem to imply, a criticism—of Southern verse. Intended for use in school and college, as well as for general reading, the volume is equipped with an introduction on Poetics, which is too slight, unfortunately, to be of very much service, with brief biographical sketches of the several poets, and with comments and questions on the various pieces, which, if not always very discriminating and illuminative, are at least characterized by unfailing enthusiasm for the subject. But, whatever the shortcomings of the critical apparatus, the selection of material is not only wide, but representative—even the emphasis laid upon the singers of the Confederacy is significant—and the book in this respect is well calculated to gratify its editor's wish for a more extensive acquaintance on the part of the general public with the poets of the South.

In view of the frequent identity of names and places mentioned in the two books, "Notes from the Life of an Ordinary Mortal" (Dutton), by A. G. C. Liddell, and "Memoirs and Memories" (London: Smith, Elder & Co.), by Mrs. C. W. Earle, one is not surprised to learn that the authors are cousins; but since the first Lord Ravensworth left fifty-nine living grandchildren at his death, it is not strange that these two fail to mention each other. Mr. Liddell, "the ordinary mortal," assures us that his only reason for writing is the existence of "a considerable class who may be amused, and even interested, by any memoir honestly written." If we add those who will enjoy an intelligent and agreeable companion for 350 pages, we shall precisely state his case. But he is wrong in thinking that he is not for the most part occupied with "persons that I have seen." Of his own career, in the law, on government commissions, and then as a minor public official, his way of taking himself humorously leaves us in doubt. But in his visits to country houses, in his shooting, painting, and dining out, he has "seen" everybody of importance in English letters, politics, art, and science for forty years past. For some reason these celebrities had little that was significant to say at the dinners attended by "the ordinary mortal," but his sketches of them are good: Carlyle after dinner, delivering his views upon things in general while young ladies sat on the floor at his feet; Huxley eating and expounding oysters; George Eliot and the author engaged in a correct conversation about dialects (here the humor is unconscious). There is an interesting picture of a vacation reading party, with plenty of fun and eight hours a day of steady work, under Jowett and then under "Tom" Green. And here is a sketch of Arnold: his speech "was delivered with great self-confidence, one might also say self-enjoyment; but his superior air was so natural and unaffected, and he seemed altogether such a 'brave garçon,' to say nothing of the excellence of the matter, that there was no offence." Mrs. Earle, the author of a "Pot-pourri from a Surrey Garden," which has run to twenty-nine editions, writes with the pleasing simplicity of an old lady of seventy. Her memoir is largely a family document, occasioned by the possession of a box of letters, mostly of her father and mother, Edward Villiers and Elizabeth Liddell, dating from about 1830. Apparently, as she says, the Villierses were ardent letter-writers. But these letters are extremely interesting as showing that under the old-fashioned formality of English family life of two generations ago there lay a genuine grace and courtesy.

The Baedeker for Switzerland, which has just appeared in its twenty-fourth edition, is a volume of nearly 600 pages (Scribner).

In the preface to his seven lectures on Ruskin ("Ruskin, a Study in Personality," Putnam), Arthur C. Benson explains that he has no intention of writing another small biography. He has nevertheless skilfully interwoven a biographical and bibliographical sketch into his study of personality, so that in general character and usefulness the work may stand beside Frederic Harrison's volume in the Men of Letters series; and it would be difficult to point to the exact difference between the two judgments of the man. There is the same note of warm affection, the same tribute to Ruskin's prophetic intuition, the same unsparing criticism of his dogmatism and his ignorance of the technique both of art criticism and of economic theory. Yet Mr. Benson is worth reading for himself, if only for the freshness and animation of his style, and in the end there remains the difference of the positivist and the idealist. For to Mr. Benson, Ruskin, in spite of his many limitations, clearly and relentlessly set forth, is still something of a hero and a god—at least a wonderful and mysterious personality, hardly to be appreciated by men at large, and least of all by the stolid British Philistine. Ruskin attained his position in the literary world by work that "was pervaded by gross faults of dogmatism, erring knowledge, and baseless judgments. His best work is still to a great extent unappreciated and unpraised, his genius hardly suspected." And this because he persisted in referring two perfectly separate impulses—the moral and the artistic—to one basis. Yet it is not clear how far, for Mr. Benson himself, these impulses are independent. His criticism of "art for art's sake" suggests a moral standpoint; and he thinks that perhaps some of the finest of all art is born out of "that very struggle" between a love of the pure and a passion for the gross.

To the series issued under the name of The Wisdom of the East, A. Hart Edwards has contributed what purports to be a rendering of a Persian poem of which "no comprehensive translation has hitherto been placed before the reading public"—the well-known "Būstān of Sadi" (Dutton). Ten minutes' search would have shown Mr. Edwards that, even if we ignore as foreigners the scholars and poets Graf, Schlechta-Wssehrd, Rückert, and Barbier de Meynard, there was already an English version of this poem, published in 1879 by Captain Clarke, a thorough Persian scholar and possessed of an admirable diction, which Mr. Edwards is far from equalling. To call the present work a translation is simply a misnomer. It is nothing more than an abridgement, devoid of any flavor of the original, of a fine Persian poem that is far too beautiful in style and noble in content to be mutilated as it here appears. Presumably the condenser's purpose was to cull out noble sentiments; but if so, one is doubly puzzled to know why he should ignore many of the most exquisite thoughts in the "Būstān."

Dr. James Guinness Rogers, who died a fortnight since at the age of eighty-eight, was a leader of the nonconformists, a friend of Gladstone, and, besides numerous contributions to the periodicals, wrote several books, among them "Church Systems of the Nineteenth Century," "Present Day Religion and Theology," "The Christian Ideal," and his "Autobiography."

The death is reported, in his sixty-sixth year, of Freiherr Raban von Canstein, professor of civil law in the University of Graz. He is remembered chiefly for his two books "Anerkennung und Geständnis" and "Lehrbuch des österreichischen Civilprozessrechts."

Science

GOVERNMENTAL GASTRONOMY.

Consul George N. West writes from Kobe that the prohibition in America of colored tea has encouraged Japanese planters to make some improvement in the quality of their teas. A marked change is noticeable this year, and the planters intend to make still greater efforts in the future to improve the flavor rather than the color and appearance of green tea. It would be a good thing if the example thus set by the Japanese, spurred by our pure food laws, were generally and voluntarily followed in our own country by the producers of foods and beverages. One would naturally suppose that in the making and marketing of things to eat and drink, flavor and palatability would always be considered first; but, as a matter of fact, the judges at county fairs allow 20 points on looks and only 15 on flavor; and this ridiculous verdict reflects the attitude of the majority of purchasers. A few years ago one of the Government's food experts contributed a long article on this subject to the Yearbook of the Department of Agriculture, under the head of "Consumers' Fancies." Dr. Wiley has written sarcastically on the same subject, noting how the wise farmer culls out the small strawberries and blackberries and the unsightly apples because they are better, and sends the large and showy ones to market because they sell better.

It is not always, however, the consumer who is to blame for inferior fruit

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in the markets. Take the pineapple. Nothing is more refreshing in hot weather, and the juice is held to be as great an aid to digestion as pepsin. In a recent number of the Consular and Trade Reports attention was called to the fact that while large quantities of canned pineapples are imported into France (1,684,980 pounds having been received in 1910) the importation of the fresh fruit is very limited. The French prefer the canned article to that in its natural state because the latter is no longer fresh when it arrives after a long trip in the hold of a ship; whereas for canning, the best ripe fruit is used in India or the West Indies. In the United States canned pineapple—especially the luscious Hawaiian brands—has also sprung into great and sudden favor. In this case the fresh fruit is placed at a disadvantage, not so much because of deterioration during transportation as because of inferior quality. Professor Bailey's assertion that the pineapple commonly seen in our markets is run down and ought to be replaced by hybrids, which are much better, is endorsed by epicures. In the Yearbook of the Agricultural Department for 1905 Herbert J. Webber wrote that when the Department's pineapple-breeding experiments were started the question of the variety to be cultivated was agitating growers. Many of them insisted that the red Spanish is the "best"—and so it is, from their point of view; that is, it is well adapted to open-field culture, is free from disease, and is a good shipper. Other growers, however, contended that "as varieties existed that were of far better quality and flavor, the market should be educated to demand these better so-called 'fancy fruits.'" The rapidity with which the public discovered the excellence of the canned Hawaiian pineapple suggests that there will be little need of educating it to appreciate fancy fresh pineapples, if the dealers will only supply them in abundance and at reasonable prices.

The officials of the Department of Agriculture are doing good work in behalf of gastronomic America. In the Yearbook for 1907 attention is called to the fact that there has been for years a strong tendency in the trade to urge fruit-growers to reduce the number of varieties. The result is shown, for instance, in the lamentable lack of variety in the peach and grape markets, barely a dozen kinds of each being offered out of hundreds of existing ones. The dealers who pursue this policy of restriction would do well to ponder the words of William A. Taylor, pomologist of the Bureau of Plant Industry: "Attractive diversity in appearance and quality stimulates a demand for fruit among consumers." For this attractive diversity the Government is providing in its agricultural experiment stations, of which each State and Territory now has one.

Primarily, the aims of these experiment stations are, of course, agricultural and economic; the results obtained are given to the public free in the form of Farmers' Bulletins, the number of which already far exceeds four hundred, and among which are special practical treatises on various cereals, vegetables, fruits, berries; on cattle, sheep, hogs, poultry; on eggs and their use, and on cheese-making; on canning vegetables and fruits, and so on. In the last analysis, however, what are all these bulletins but so many governmental lessons in national gastronomy? In the last two years, moreover, the Department of Agriculture has boldly invaded the kitchen itself, providing admirable lessons in the art of preparing and serving appetizing food, in such bulletins as "The Care of Milk and its Use in the Home," "Bread and Bread-Making," "Food Customs and Diet in American Homes," "Care of Food in the Home," "Economical Use of Meat in the Home."

Among the most interesting of the Government's contributions to gastronomic literature are the chapters in the Yearbooks describing and illustrating the new fruit productions of the Department of Agriculture, among them the tangelo, a cross between the tangerine and the pomelo (grape fruit), the "citrange," besides new limes, improved pineapple hybrids, etc. The "Bulletin on Guinea Fowl" (of which there are many varieties) suggests an interesting solution of the feathered-game question. In the guinea fowl we have a partial substitute for our rapidly disappearing edible birds, as its flesh has naturally an agreeably gamy flavor. Unfortunately, the price of guinea fowl has already begun to soar like that of the few remaining game birds.

In "The Call of the Snowy Hispar" (Scribner importation) Fanny Bullock Workman and William Hunter Workman give an account of their exploration of the Hispar glacier of north Kashmir in the western Himalayas. The text has but little literary charm and makes heavy reading as a personal narrative of travel. Though the native Nagar coolies are not particularly interesting, and though the region offers little but bare rocky slopes and snow fields, yet there are many aspects of general interest in such a trip which are almost totally neglected, the preponderating emphasis of the volume being laid upon geological and glacial matters. To the mountaineer and glaciologist the book appeals, and to these it offers much of importance. The photographs and telephotographs are extremely good, equalling any glacier pictures ever published. Three appendices treat respectively of the Basin of the Hispar Glacier, Summary of the Minerals, and of the Plants Collected. These are by Drs. Calciati and Koncza, two graduate students of the University of Fribourg, who accompanied the expedition. Besides traversing the entire length of the glacier, seven of the lateral tributaries were explored and mapped. Chapter xii affords some amusement in its hint of the professional jealousy existing between rival feminine mountain-climbers. It seems that one Miss A. Peck claimed to have ascended a peak in Peru to the height of "above 23,000 feet, and probably 24,000 feet." Doubtful of the lady's facts, Mrs. Workman sent to South America a special expedition of engineers to determine by triangulation the exact altitude of this mountain. This proved to be 21,812 feet. So the final sentence of the volume triumphantly announces: "The altitude of the lower summit of Huascaran, claimed to have been ascended by Miss Peck, is some 1,500 feet lower than the highest altitude attained by Mrs. Bullock Workman."

Dr. G. Carroll Smith's "What to Eat, and Why" (W. B. Saunders Co.) is not exactly the popular treatise which the title may lead the casual purchaser to expect. It is rather an aid to the medical student, and yet more particularly to the general practitioner in deciding dietetic questions such as arise in the treatment of the more common diseases. It is not intended for the guidance of the laity, although intelligent readers of this class may glean much useful information from the book. A brief introductory chapter lays down the fundamental principles of proper feeding, mainly by a consideration of the opinions of standard writers, but with frequent restrictions and modifications dictated by the very practical good sense of the author. Dr. Smith is no faddist, but evidently believes that the food habits of a community have a certain good foundation, however much harm may come from them in special cases. He is thoroughly skeptical concerning any general application of the doctrines of Chittenden; has no sympathy with one-mealers, or even two-mealers; favors careful mastication, without advocacy of multi-mastication, and with no allusion to Fletcher and his isms; and finds in alcohol a very useful servant to man, but a servant that must be taught to know his place. The greater part of the book discusses diet in disease, and contains much that is suggestive and well calculated to be helpful to the practitioner and to lessen his dependence on the specialist. There is a useful bibliography, which would be better were the references more precise, and also if more of the strictly original sources were included.

Prof. W. L. Jepson, author of "The Silva of California" (Berkeley, Cal.: The University Press), has been gathering his material for about a score of years, and a part of it has plainly been long awaiting publication. The delay has not been without its advantages. It has enabled the author to emphasize many subjects bearing on conservation and forestry which would have fallen on dull ears only a short time ago. And it has permitted him to adopt a system of scientific nomenclature which is open to the fewest objections, namely, that which was agreed upon at the Vienna International Botanical Congress in 1905. For the common names of the trees and shrubs, however, he had no guide or authorized standard, a condition which was aggravated in the case of California by the rough-and-ready inventions of a very wide range of transient immigrants, especially during the

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gold fever. His practical sense in selecting good distinctive names—thus "maul oak" (Quercus chrysolepis) in place of a dozen other names for this tree—is evident throughout. Professor Jepson's descriptions give the impression of first-hand knowledge. The records appear to have been made largely in the forest, and supplemented by herbarium comparison at home and abroad. The author evidently has a happy knack of getting well acquainted with lumbermen, and therefore his contribution to a practical knowledge of California forests and forest-products is of great value at this critical period in the history of forest-waste. We can commend to every Californian the pathetic appeal made by Professor Jepson to save a remnant, if no more, of the Redwood of the coast. The illustrations are numerous and are worthy of the text. The volume—an ample quarto—taken in conjunction with Professor Sargent's "North American Silva," makes the study of the woody vegetation of California possible for all.

The first volume of the fourth edition of Brehm's "Tierleben" (imported by Lemcke & Buechner) has now made its appearance, and when completed this old standard work will be as up to date as is possible for any published treatise on general natural history. It is edited by Prof. O. zur Strassen, who, with his assistants, has completely rewritten the text. Volume I, "Aves," of the present edition shows complete inversion of plan when compared with the same volume of an earlier edition. The classification is inverted, beginning logically with the generalized Flachbrustvögel, or ostriches, and their allies, instead of with the thrushes. While no generalizations can be made until the remaining volumes on Aves appear, several radical changes are apparent, such as the reduction of the three orders of Ratires to a single order, this in turn being divided into six sub-orders. The title of the introduction, "Ein Blick auf den Bau und das Leben der Gesamtheit," is well fulfilled in the text, and the accompanying photographs of feathers and embryos are excellent. A considerable number of the famous old wood-cuts still survive, but the colored plates have been replaced with new and better ones. The most pleasing innovation is the number of remarkably fine photographs, and it is flattering to note that more than a fourth of these were taken in the New York Zoölogical Park. Readers of German will welcome this new presentation of a work which for many years has held so high a place in the field of general natural history.

Samuel Hawksley Burbury, who was well known in England as a student of the classics and mathematics, is dead, at the age of eighty. He published three works on mathematics: With Dr. H. W. Watson, "Generalized Coördinates" and "The Mathematical Theory of Electricity"; alone, "A Treatise on the Kinetic Theory of Gases."

The death is reported from Paris of Paul Georges Dieulafoy, one of the most distinguished medical men in France. He was born at Toulouse in 1839, was a commander of the Legion of Honor, and wrote an important work, in two volumes, entitled "Manuel de pathologie interne."

Dr. Albert Ladenburg, whose death in his seventieth year is announced from Breslau, was professor of chemistry at the university of that town. He wrote extensively in his subject, among his works being "Entwicklungsgeschichte der Chemie," "Die Kosmischen Konsequenzen der Spektralanalyse," and "Ueber den Einfluss der Naturwissenschaften auf die Weltanschauung."

Drama and Music

Chatto & Windus announce "Original Plays," by Sir W. S. Gilbert, fourth series, with a portrait of the author.

"Ibsen's Drafts of His Plays," translated by A. G. Chater, with an introduction by William Archer, is promised shortly by the Scribners.

"The Single Man," a comedy in four acts by Hubert Henry Davies, which was produced in the Empire Theatre on Monday night, with John Drew in the principal part, proved a disappointment in almost every respect. There was little in it worthy of the author of "Cynthia," "The Mollusc," and "Mrs. Gorringe's Necklace." It contains many bright lines, some of questionable taste, one or two amusing situations, some clever characterization, and one excellent scene, but, on the whole, it suggests an immature work, hastily prepared for a particular occasion. The story is trite and the personages are old theatrical types. A bachelor author, in the early forties, a man of gravity, imagination, and learning, engages himself to an empty-headed hoyden of eighteen, who soon reduces him to the last stages of boredom and fatigue. Next he is exposed to the fierce amatory suit of a malicious, desperate, and determined spinster. Then he discovers that the only woman in the world for him is the secretary who long has loved him in secret. The scenes in which these lovers find each other and make common cause are by far the best in the play, and partly justify its existence. But generally the piece is crude and conventional in structure, slovenly in composition, and ineffective in action. Moreover it is not cast happily. Mr. Drew, himself, in spite of his technical dexterity and ripe experience, is quite unable to identify himself with such a character as that of Robin is supposed to be, especially on the sentimental, romantic, and emotional sides. It is strange, indeed, that he should have been induced to undertake it. Nor are his associates much more happy in the parts allotted to them, with the exception of Mary Boland, who plays the secretary with a simple sincerity and womanliness which prove very effective. She carried off the acting honors of the evening.

The first volume of the dramatic works of Goethe in the Grossherzog Wilhelm Ernst Ausgabe (Leipzig: Insel-Verlag), edited by Hans Gerhard Gräf of Weimar, appeared nearly two years ago. The volume was also published separately with the title "Goethes Faust, Gesamtausgabe" (see *Nation*, January 20, 1910). Gräf's example of printing in full the "Urfaust," the finished texts and fragments that Goethe published or left for his administrators to publish, and all other known manuscript fragments, has since been followed by Karl Alt and Georg Witkowski, yet, despite this fact, Gräf's "Faust" has already reached a third edition of 5,000 copies. His second volume of the dramatic works appeared a few months ago, and the third and concluding volume will be out before long. The second contains, in chronological arrangement, the dramas and dramatic fragments written in the years 1765 to 1785, except a fragment from "Belsazar" and one from the "Königliche Einsiedlerin," found in the "Urmeister" and included by Morris among the "Nachträge" to his new edition of "Der junge Goethe." The two versions of "Götz" are given in full, as are also the two of the "Jahrmarktsfest." The first version of "Erwin und Elmire," "Claudine," "Iphigenie," and "Elpenor" appear in this volume; the later forms will be included in Vol. III. "Stella" in the earlier version is followed by the later ending of 1806 (three and a half pages), as nothing would be gained by printing the whole text a second time. Likewise "Jery und Bätely" is followed by the expanded ending of 1825. The thin-paper volume of 905 pages, somewhat smaller in form than the Everyman's Library series, is not quite three-quarters of an inch thick. It is beautifully printed from Latin type and bound tastefully in flexible red leather. A cheaper blue cloth binding is also to be had.

"Franz Liszt," by James Huneker, is in the Scribners' list of autumn books.

A Liszt Museum was opened at Franz Liszt's birthplace, Raiding, on the twenty-fifth anniversary of his death. The ceremonies were preceded by a funeral service in the church.

German opera at the Metropolitan next season will not be confined to Wagner and Humperdinck, but will include the novelties: "Lobetanz," by Ludwig Thuille, and Leo Blech's one-act opera, "Versiegelt."

Among the pianists to be heard in this country the coming season, none will be more welcome than Katharine Goodson. Besides giving a number of recitals she will be heard with several orchestras, including the Boston Symphony and the New York Philharmonic, with which she once before played the Grieg concerto. In addition to this great work her répertoire will include concertos by Liszt, Brahms, Tchaikovsky, Saint-Saëns, and her husband, Mr. Hinton.

Another artist who will be cordially welcomed here the coming season is Albert Spalding, who has won laurels on two continents by his excellent violin playing, the outcome of hard work combined with unusual talent.

Not only will F. C. Whitney not produce the "Rosenkavalier" in this country, but he has also postponed his production of Strauss's new opera in London till next spring, chiefly because of the difficulty of getting the necessary singers. He tried to procure Nordica and Alice Nielsen, but both had previous operatic and concert engagements.

The Milan Scala's repertory for next season does not include the "Rosenkavalier," which was produced in that theatre last winter. Next year the whole season in Milan will be devoted to a Verdi cycle, in commemoration of his centenary.

After a successful tour of the world,

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Sousa and his band will reach American soil again late in the autumn by way of Hawaii.

Saint-Saëns's latest opera, "Déjanire," which was first sung at Monte Carlo with great success, is to be produced soon in Paris, and, in a German version, at Dessau. The hero of the opera is, of course, Hercules.

Hamburg newspapers announce that Caruso will appear at the opera house in that city on October 15, 18, 20, as Don José in "Carmen," as Canio in "I Pagliacci," and as Count Richard in Verdi's "Masked Ball."

Oscar Hammerstein intends to open his London Opera House with "Quo Vadis."

Ermanno Wolf-Ferrari, whose comic opera, "Suzanne's Secret," was so successfully produced in New York last season by Mr. Dippel's company, will cross the Atlantic next season to conduct the rehearsals of his latest opera, "The Madonna's Jewel," at Chicago, and to conduct his "Le donne curiose," which is to open the season at the Metropolitan Opera House, with Geraldine Farrar and Johanna Gadski in the leading rôles.

Humperdinck's "Königskinder," which was the most popular opera at the Metropolitan last winter, will be the novelty at the autumn season of German opera in London, which begins on October 20. There will be no Geraldine Farrar or Otto Goritz in the cast, but the music is so beautiful and the play so touching that it will doubtless score a success nevertheless, as it has done in the cities of Germany. In Berlin, where the performance was so unsatisfactory that the opera did not at first arouse much enthusiasm (the New York papers printed cablegrams to the effect that it was a failure there), it nevertheless achieved a brilliant success, having had more performances during the season than any other work excepting Mozart's "Magic Flute," on the staging of which a fortune had been spent.

Art

Lady Charlotte Schreiber's Journals: Confidences of a Collector of Ceramics and Antiques throughout Great Britain, France, Holland, Belgium, Spain, Portugal, Turkey, Austria, and Germany from the Year 1869 to 1885. Edited by her son, Montague J. Guest, with Annotations by Egan Mew. Illustrated by upwards of 100 plates, including 8 in color and one in photogravure. In two volumes: New York: John Lane Co. $12.50 net.

This record of an indefatigable Englishwoman's ceramic quest describes the formation of the valuable Schreiber collection, given to the British nation in 1885. The diarist, born in 1812, was the only daughter of the ninth Earl of Lindsey, who at sixty-five, in a second marriage, had wedded Charlotte Layard, daughter of the Dean of Bristol. The father died in 1818. His daughter's education, directed by an easy-going mother and uncongenial stepfather, the Rev. Peter Pegus, was neither extensive nor methodical. An active mind, however, supplied deficiencies. The young lady read voraciously and, helped by her brother's tutor, studied Latin, Greek, Hebrew, and Persian. At twenty-one she was married to a middle-aged widower, Sir John Guest, ironmaster of Dowlais, near Merthyr Tydfil. The young wife not only bore her husband ten children but took a most active interest in his affairs, concerning which she wrote, "I have so schooled myself into habits of business that it is more congenial to me to calculate the advantage of half per cent. commission on a cargo of iron than to go to the finest ball in the world." As a recreation she mastered the Welsh language and literature. Her translation of the "Mabinogion" inspired Tennyson's "Idylls of the King."

Sir John Guest died in 1852. Three years later his widow was married to Charles Schreiber of Melton, Suffolk, eldest son of Col. J. A. Schreiber of Wellington's army. In 1869 Lady Charlotte, now past fifty, unexpectedly caught the "china mania" from two of her sons who had become connoisseurs at a time when "any person with a very small amount of knowledge could go round the old shops and pick up the untold treasures of to-day for the most trivial sums." The mother soon outdid her children in enthusiasm and connoisseurship. Accompanied by her husband who carried a red bag and a chicken basket known to every customs inspector in Europe, she rummaged about, and ransacked antique shops, bargained, and dickered, with successes that appeared when, in memory of Mr. Schreiber, who had recently died, she gave to the public about 2,000 of her finest pieces.

This gift did not result from a sudden impulse, for in 1884 Lady Charlotte wrote:

> The idea is not a new one with me. Indeed, years ago C. S. used to say what a pleasure it would be to collect national objects for the benefit of our country. This plan has slumbered of late years. But the last thing I did last October, before leaving England, was to make a Will, leaving all the "English Collection," as far as I might have the power of leaving it, to the South Kensington Museum, under certain conditions as to its being kept in its integrity.

On November 19, 1885, came the parting with her treasures:

> Before 10 o'clock the storekeepers from the South Kensington came to commence their labors. They have packed and carried away all the Bow—and have packed most of the Chelsea. I have been in all day—attending to the packers. The dear Chelsea Aviary is gone. I close this sad volume with my adieux to the collection.

The lady's sight at this time was failing and many of her former pursuits were denied her. She lived, however, until 1895.

Lady Charlotte for many years kept journals, of which such portions as relate to the years of china collecting appear in the volumes now published. The entries show her to have been a woman of broad sympathies and many interests. Comments on British politics alternate with narratives of adventure among antique shops, for she was of the old Whig persuasion and never in her travels forgot the game that was playing at home. At the general election of 1880, her husband and two sons stood for seats as Conservatives, two other sons as Liberals. As literature, her journal will rank high. Its style befits such a person as her son, Montague Guest, has described:

> In her nature, she was a woman with a deep sense of moral duty, very self-possessed and calm, with an extraordinary control over her feelings. I can truly say that I never saw her angry or unduly excited in my life. She had an untiring energy and was endowed with unlimited perseverance.

Charles Schreiber, though quite as enthusiastic as his wife in collecting, appears to have been less of a connoisseur than she, and he suffered from such physical disabilities that the ferreting, figuring, and haggling often devolved on her alone. A high principled woman she was, but a born bargain hunter also, alert to take advantage of another's ignorance or need of ready money. A characteristic "find" was one at Rotterdam in 1874:

> C. S. presently ran joyfully back to me bringing what de Maan was offering for sale. What was my astonishment and delight when he displayed before my bewildered eyes no less than 5 beautiful Bristol figures!—The price was not small for Chelsea, which de Maan considered them to be, but it was little enough for Bristol, which they really were, and we gladly gave him the £22 to which, after a little parley, he came. Our Bristol figures now surpass every collection.

The unexpected often occurred in the quest, as in the following instance:

> We drove about at Haarlem. The character of its shops has altered a good deal. Franse having changed his manager had nothing good or old to show, Romain's new shop was bad and dear; we got a plate at old Hauja's and were regretting our loss of time and trouble, when, as a sort of forlorn hope, we looked into Leeuw's, where we never yet found anything to buy, and our eyes were greeted with the sight of the loveliest of smelling bottles of fine Bristol glass! I need not say that I carried it off in triumph to add to the three other little darlings that I have at home.

As collector, Lady Charlotte frequently encountered amateurs from the United States. At Dresden in 1879, she wrote: "We came across an American gentleman who told us he had a large collection at home. . . . He cor-

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roborated what we had already heard, that the Americans are now paying great attention to antiquities and making collections everywhere." Through the later entries are scattered personalia concerning a wealthy woman, of small knowledge, but long purse and patience, who bought curiosities for an American museum.

The journals, apart from their considerable interest as a human document, should be consulted by future compilers of manuals for ceramic collectors. Bits of out-of-the-way information abound in them. In Portugal, for example, Lady Charlotte unearthed data unknown to the ceramic books of her day—and to several very recent publications—concerning the royal works superintended about 1775 by Gen. Bartholomew da Costa, who had "discovered the art of making a beautiful biscuit porcelain and plaques and medallions à la Wedgwood." Elsewhere are minor but valuable additions to ceramic knowledge. In bringing out these memoirs, Mr. Lane will have performed an especially important service, if they should lead to published accounts of the formation of other great museum collections.

The Scribners announce for publication this autumn: "Other People," a Gibson book; "Fair Americans," by Harrison Fisher; "The Annual of the Society of Illustrators"; "The Classic Point of View," by Kenyon Cox, and "History of Art in France," by Louis Hourticq.

"Materials for Permanent Painting" (Van Nostrand), by Maximilian Toch, is an admirable manual intended for the use of manufacturers, art dealers, artists, and collectors. The author is one of the foremost paint technologists; he is also a chemist, practical color manufacturer, and art connoisseur; and is well known as the author of "The Chemistry and Technology of Mixed Paints," the first work ever written on the subject. The manual is not technical, yet sufficient of the chemistry of pigments, solvents, varnishes, driers, etc., is included to give the work a particular as well as general value. The chapters on History of Painting, Sinopia, Photo-Chemical Deterioration of Oil Paintings, and those dealing with the causes of the cracking of paintings, the renovation and cleaning of pictures, and the choice of materials are especially interesting. The description of the pigments (107 pages) appears to be well distributed and of the sort to serve as an excellent artist's guide. If painters will follow Mr. Toch's advice and "will limit the colors used on their palettes to the least possible number [these are stated] and use only those which do not interact [a discussion of this is ably presented], as well as exercise a little judgment in glazing over colors only after they are thoroughly dry," it is reasonable to conclude, as does the author, that "absolutely permanent results will be obtained." The book is supplied with a well-prepared index, and the print, binding, and illustrations are unusually good.

"Rugs of the Orient," by C. R. Clifford (New York: Clifford & Lawton), is planned rather for the practical rug-buyer than for the collector. It goes thoroughly into the modern weaves, especially those of carpet-size. For the identification of weaves the author proposes seven empirical tests, which we believe would work out with all rugs in original condition. There are many plates, including useful photographs of the backs of characteristic types. Outline plates give the elements of the various types of design, and there is some attempt to link these to ancient patterns. On the whole this album is as good a guide as we know to the rug market as it is. It omits certain important types dear to the collector, such as the geometrical mats in scarlet and azure generally ascribed to Damascus. The various kilims might have been mentioned, though the author may not regard these thin fabrics as rugs.

The archæological excavations in Nubia, which were undertaken by the Survey Department of the Egyptian Ministry of Finance, have resulted in interesting discoveries. Excavations were carried on at Bega, Shellal, Khor Bahan, and other important sites. The first pre-dynastic remains were discovered at Shellal. The bodies, which had mostly been buried in the usual contracted position, were found lying on their left side and were in each case accompanied by pottery of good workmanship. In one grave were found no less than twenty-five persons of both sexes. At Khor Bahan some very ancient graves were examined, but here the bodies, though in a perfect state of preservation, were so fragile that it was found impossible to remove them. In graves of a later period some pottery, slate palettes, axe-heads, and beads were brought to light. Between Shellal and Dehmir some graves of the Pharaonic age were cleared, but owing to the infiltration of the Nile they were found to be so damp that most of the bodies crumbled away at the slightest touch. The bodies were not bandaged in the Egyptian style, but were occasionally covered with reed mats or skins.

The excavations which were carried on this season at Priene in Asia Minor, under the auspices of the Austrian School of Archæology at Athens, have had some important results. Among the most interesting finds was a large cistern of very early date, which was restored in later times. Near the cistern were discovered some pieces of early Greek sculpture, and a female statue of Roman workmanship. Some buildings of the Doric and proto-Doric order were also brought to light, as well as a temple dedicated to Apollo. In the neighborhood of Priene a large number of reservoirs were found, which appear to have supplied the town with water, and these were connected with a spring by means of water-pipes. One of the reservoirs ended in a vaulted chamber, built almost entirely of enormous limestone blocks in a primitive manner.

Various archæological discoveries of interest are reported from Italy. Prof. Dante Vaglieri, who is in charge of the excavations at Ostia, has discovered in the theatre there a fine statue of Venus, probably a copy of a Hellenistic work dating from the third or second century B. C. It is supposed that the statue formed part of the ornamentation of the theatre. Professor Dall' Osso, director of the Museum of Ancona, has just found near Osimo the remains of a large Gallic settlement, superimposed on a collection of neolithic huts, which are supposed to date from about 3,500 B. C. The huts are of circular form, with a hole in the centre for the pole which supported the roof. At Paestum excavations have been carried on of the Roman buildings between the temples of Neptune and Ceres. A fine statue was found, larger than life size, which probably represents Drusus Junior in sacerdotal garments.

The intense heat which has prevailed this summer in Europe has threatened to destroy many of the most valuable paintings in the Germanic Museum of Nuremberg, among which some of the works of Albrecht Dürer are especially to be mentioned. The varnish melts and runs across the pictures, and the wood on which they are often painted cracks and falls in pieces. It has been found necessary to remove these rare artistic treasures from the extremely hot gallery to the cellar until a new building is erected, in which they will not be subjected to such excessive and destructive variations of temperature.

The death is reported of Charles Louis Gratia, the oldest member of the Société des Artistes Français. He was born in 1815 and began exhibiting at the Salon in 1837. He is best known as the author of portraits in pastels.

Finance

THE THREAT OF A RAILWAY STRIKE.

Last Friday's conference, at San Francisco, between the Southern Pacific managers and the representatives of the machinists on the line, ended as most fair-minded people expected and as all of them must have hoped. It ended in a courteous but firm refusal of all the shopmen's demands. The decision had been awaited with considerable anxiety, for two reasons. One reason was the financial community's apprehension that, if the demands of the railway machinists were denied, the men would strike. The other was the doubt which existed in some quarters whether the railway managers might not yield. Either a strike or a surrender by the companies to these new demands would have been badly received in financial circles generally, but in view of all the circumstances, it is probably safe to say that the second alternative would have had much the worse effect. The question was not tested. The railways having stated their position, the employees did nothing except to express, through their leaders, a wish to have their proposals arbitrated. So the matter stands at this writing, the probability of a strike having greatly decreased. It remains to inquire what was the nature of the issue which has been thus raised and brushed aside.

When the employees of the Union and Southern Pacific Railway shops voted

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two weeks ago, apparently by overwhelming majorities, to place certain demands before their employers and to strike if the demands were not conceded, a good many people declared that the long-predicted "labor trouble" was at hand. There had been much talk ever since 1907, but especially since last spring, about "liquidating labor," and although nobody seemed to know exactly what was meant by that somewhat singular figure of speech, there was a general feeling that the process would mean industrial collision.

It was only last week that the general public got the text of the shopmen's ultimatum. They wanted the company to deal, in shop disputes, with a federated union of all crafts throughout the system, instead of with separate unions for each craft. They insisted that the company should compel all shop employees to join that union, whether they so wished or not; that the union's committees should designate who should be laid off when forces were reduced, and that no union employee should be discharged or suspended without that committee's previous consent. They asked for an increase of wages and a shortening of hours which, the management set forth, meant average total increase of 36 per cent. in payrolls. Last, but not least, they asked that the company should put a stop, now and hereafter, to all piecework, premium, or "bonus system." That is to say, they asked the official abandonment and rejection of the "scientific management," whose possible general introduction, with its resultant economies to employer and employee, was the central argument before the Interstate Commerce Commission, six months ago, against the granting of higher railway rates.

When these demands were published, it was manifest to every thinking man that the railways could not possibly concede them. It was at least peculiar, when the Harriman lines were laying off 20 per cent. or so of their shop employees, because of falling earnings and reduced requirements of business, to expect them to increase wages. The concessions to the federated union would have been tantamount to surrender by the companies of final management of their shops.

The matter was probably at no time taken as seriously outside of Wall Street as on the stock market itself. Our railway employees have been encouraged to make demands, because of the ready yielding of the companies to the demands of other years. The earlier concessions may have been wholly warranted, but they evidently encouraged the making of fresh demands which were not. Almost alone among the industries, the railways have increased the average pay of their employees since the panic of 1907; the shopmen themselves have had 12 to 15 per cent. increase in the past five years; therefore they have no grievance. A year ago, some 27,000 Pennsylvania Railroad trainmen voted authority to the union leaders to call a strike unless wages were increased. The managers explained that they could not do it; that wages had already been raised while profits were declining, and that no further increase could be made. The men accepted the reply and did not strike. There is reason to believe that enough of this spirit exists in the ranks of American labor to avert any general outbreak of such trouble.

The industrial history of this country, during the past quarter-century, indicates that strikes are most numerous at the culmination of a business boom, and naturally most successful, but that when they break out in a period of trade depression, they are then more violent than at other times and usually least successful. Prior to the beginning, in 1898, of the last epoch of prosperity, the year with the greatest number of strikes in the United States was the "boom year," 1890, and nearly 53 per cent. of them were successful. The greatest "strike year," numerically, on the Bureau of Labor's published records, was 1903.

But 1877, when the Pennsylvania Railroad strikers virtually declared war on the public authorities; 1882, when the famous Homestead strike occurred, and the employees of the Carnegie mills intrenched themselves behind steel billets, firing at whomsoever the company sent to recover the works, and 1904, when the United States regular army had to be called upon to protect the trains from the insolent embargo of the Railway Union at Chicago, were all years of financial and industrial depression. The companies could not grant demands for higher pay, and the workingmen fought with all the greater bitterness. But sometimes the issue was not a question of wage advances, but reductions. This, at least, has not yet become an issue in the present industrial situation—least of all with the railways. That is one reason why people best qualified to judge have not predicted for the United States an experience like that of England.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, M. The Scholar Gipsy and Thyrsis. (Illustrated in color). Boston: Dana Estes & Co. $1.25 net.
Auvergne, E. B. d'. Famous Castles and Palaces of Italy. Scribner.
A Woman Alone: An Autobiography. D. Appleton. $1.25 net.
Baedeker's Switzerland. 1911 Edition. Scribner. $2.40.
Baumbach, R. Der Schwiegersohn. Edited, with notes, by E. Manley. Chicago: Scott, Foresman. 50 cents.
Bebel's Reminiscences. Translated from the First German Edition by E. Untermann. Part 1. Socialist Literature Co. 75 cents net.
Besier, R. Lady Patricia: A Comedy in Three Acts. Duffield.
Bible, The 1911: Being the Authorized Version of 1611, with the Text Amended by American Scholars. Frowde. $1.25.
Bindloss, H. A Prairie Courtship. Stokes. $1.25 net.
Blake, E. C. Marcia of the Little Home. D. Appleton. $1.20 net.
Blanchard, A. E. Talbot's Angles. Boston: Dana Estes. $1.50.
Bluthgen's Mama Kommt and Schanz's Die Alte. Edited, with notes, by F. Betz. Chicago: Scott, Foresman. 50 cents.
Burroughs, J. Bird Stories: Sketches Taken from the Works of Burroughs. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 80 cents net.
Briggs, M. S. In the Heel of Italy: A Study of an Unknown City. Duffield.
Brown, E. A. Four Gordons. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Brown, V. The Great Offender. Brentano. $1.35 net.
Burchill, G., Ettinger, W. L., and Shimer, E. D. The Progressive Road to Reading. Book Four. Silver, Burdett. 50 cents.
Cabaton, A. Java and the Dutch East Indies. Scribner.
Collins, C. W. Great Love Stories of the Theatre. Duffield. $3.50 net.
Conway, J. P. The Question of the Hour: A Survey of the Catholic Church in the U. S. Third edition. P. J. Kennedy & Sons. 35 cents.
Crawford, S. J. Kansas in the Sixties. Chicago: McClurg. $2 net.
Crommelin, M. Madam Mystery. Boston: Dana Estes & Co. $1.25 net.
Denison, C. P. The Paracelsus of Robert Browning. Baker & Taylor.
Dickens Centenary Edition. Christmas Stories. 2 vols. Scribner.
Dillingham, E. T., and Emerson, A. P. "Tell It Again" Stories. Boston: Ginn. 50 cents.
Duffey, A. On the Cinder Path. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Duncan, N. The Measure of a Man. Revell. $1.25 net.
English, D. A Book of Nimble Beasts: Bunny Rabbit, Squirrel, etc. (Illustrated). Boston: Dana Estes. $2 net.
Fisher, E. J. New Jersey as a Royal Province, 1738 to 1776. Col. Univ. Studies. Longmans.
Garnett, P., and Stricklen, E. G. The Green Knight: The Ninth Grove Play of the Bohemian Club of San Francisco. Privately printed by some of its members.
Geiger, A. Judaism and Its History. Translated from the German by C. Newburgh. Bloch Pub. Co. $2 net.
Godfrey, W. H. A History of Architecture in London. Scribner.
Griffis, W. E. The Unmannerly Tiger, and other Korean Tales. Crowell. $1.
Haslette, J. Desmond Rourke, Irishman. D. Appleton. $1.30 net.
Herrick and Damon's New Composition and Rhetoric for Schools. Revised. Chicago: Scott, Foresman. $1.
Hopkins, W. J. The Indian Book. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. $1.25 net.
Hudson, W. C. Random Recollections of an Old Political Reporter. Cupples & Leon Co. $1.25 net.
Jacobs, F. W. Love Life of Jesus and Mary of Bethany, and Poems. Oklahoma Bank and Office Supply Co. $2.50.

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Jacobs, T. The Midnight Mummer, and Other Poems. Atlanta: The Redbrook Co.
Jastrow, M., jr. Die Religion Babyloniens und Assyriens. 17. Lieferung. Giessen: Alfred Töpelmann.
Jefferson, C. E. Why We May Believe in Life after Death. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. $1 net.
Johnson, V. W. Summer Days at Vallombrosa. A. S. Barnes Co.
King, M. R. H. The Judgment. Demille Pub. Co. $1.20 net.
Kramer, H. M. The Rugged Way. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Iamblichos. Theurgia, or the Egyptian Mysteries. Translated from the Greek by A. Wilder. Metaphysical Pub. Co. $2.50.
Lewis, C. B. La Lyre D'Amour: An anthology of French Love Poems. Duffield.
Lincoln, Abraham. Selections. Edited by A. S. Draper. American Book Co. 35 cents.
Lloyd, A. B. Uganda to Khartoum. Third edition. Scribner.
Marshall, M. M. The Drift. D. Appleton. $1.10 net.
Maunder, A. S. D., and E. W. The Heavens
Moseley, E. L. The Wonder Lady. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard. $1.10.
Murray, D. A. Plane Trigonometry. Longmans.
Orczy, Baroness. The Heart of a Woman. Doran. $1.20 net.
Paine, R. D. Sandy Sawyer, Sophomore; The Stroke Oar; The Wrecking Master. Scribner. $1.50, $1.50, $1.25.
Parkman's Oregon Trail. Edited for school use by W. MacDonald. Chicago: Scott, Foresman. 40 cents.
Perrin, A. The Charm. Desmond FitzGerald. $1.20 net.
Pier, A. S. The Jester of St. Timothy's. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. $1 net.
Pike. The Boy's Story of Zebulon M. Pike. Edited by Mary G. Humphreys. Scribner. $1.50 net.
Platt, Mr. and Mrs. W. Stories of the Scottish Border. Crowell. $1.50.
Pratt, E. E. Industrial Causes of Congestion of Population in New York City. Col. Univ. Studies. Longmans.
Pratt, E. F. Happy Children. Crowell. $1.
Report of the Minister of State for Education, for 1908-1909. Tokyo, Japan: Department of Education.
Sparhawk, F. C. Dorothy Brooke's Experiments. Crowell. $1.50.
Stephenson, E. S., and Asano, W. Famous People of Japan. Yokohama: Kelly & Walsh.
Stoltze, E. M. Lose Blätter. American Book Co. 30 cents.
Thackeray's English Humorists of the Eighteenth Century. Edited by S. Young. Boston: Ginn.
The Rubric Birthday Book. Duffield.
The Social Evil in Chicago: A Study of Existing Conditions, by the Vice Commission of Chicago. Third edition.
Wagner's Götterdämmerung. Translated in poetic narrative form by Oliver Huckel. Crowell. 75 cents net.
Wallace, J. S. What of the Church? Philadelphia: The Griffith & Rowland Press. 50 cents net.
Wentworth, G., and Smith, D. E. Vocational Algebra. Boston: Ginn. 50 cents.
Wentworth's Plane and Solid Geometry. Revised by G. Wentworth and D. E. Smith. Boston: Ginn. $1.30.
Whi[illegible] W. The Story-Life of Washington. 2 vols. Phila.: Winston Co. $3 net.

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